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ABSTRACT

This publication presents information on the primary education systems of the 10 countries that make up the UNESCO subregional network for South and Southeast Europe, which is called Cooperation in Research and Development for Innovation in Education in South and Southeast Europe (CODIESEE). An introductory section discusses: (1) the sociocultural background of European school systems; (2) the extent of compulsory education in the CODIESEE countries; (3) objectives and trends in primary education in CODIESEE countries; and (4) issues relating to evaluation of new primary school curricula. The bulk of the publication consists of 10 reports, submitted by representatives of educational departments or institutions, on the status of primary education in the CODIESEE countries. The countries are Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Turkey, and Yugoslavia. Topics discussed in the reports include the structure and organization of the educational system; the principal subjects taught in primary school; teacher training; educational research; the content of the primary school curricula; new curricula recently introduced into the primary schools; and the methods of evaluating the success of the new curricula. (BC)

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Primary Education in Europe
Evaluation of New Curricula in 10 European Countries

Edited by Lucio Pusci

Document published with the technical and financial assistance of UNESCO

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INTRODUCTION

Aldo Visalberghi
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UNESCO's "sub-regional" activities refer for the most part to geographical and cultural areas in which neighboring countries display a considerable diversity of traditions, religions, political and social organizations, and levels of development. The CODIESEE network is especially significant in this regard.

The countries taking part in the above network, almost all of them southern and southeastern European, display perhaps the greatest degree of nonuniformity vis-a-vis one another and even internally to be found in Europe. But they are all attempting, even in different ways and following different paths, to create a solid cultural base, at higher levels. Naturally, it is the basic school, elementary school in particular, that represents the most decisive operating area to ensure at least a starting homogeneity. A comparative study of what is going on at that level, of the changes taking place, and of the further needs that can be most objectively and systematically brought out, was made during a conference held over June 5th through 9th 1989 in this center.

These proceedings are being published when a whirling series of radical and hard to predict changes has, during the past few months in particular, brought the social and political situations in the countries taking part in it much closer. Freedom and democracy are now less ambiguous terms, and the possibilities of understanding and cooperation have become more concrete in every way. UNESCO's cultural policy, aiming at promoting communication and understanding, between those most different in particular, is surely to draw from this the most favorable auspices. This cannot but further stimulate a more educational and homogeneous action, especially in the primary schools, where the foundations of one's basic attitudes and moral and social values are laid.

This is the royal road to bringing about a new "European hume" that will extend the area of freedom and democracy, but will not sacrifice to them the impelling demands for social justice and for a progressive equalization of standards of living, although in full respect for diversity. For those diversities that, for that matter, as Hans Georg Gadamer wrote recently, to *the extent to which they have historically been translated into the "coexistence of different cultures and languages, religions and faiths", bring about that "nearness and parity of values with the other" that for we Europeans can make up "a true school for the task to which we are called. It isn't a matter simply of the unity of Europe in the sense of political alliances between states. It is rather a matter of the future of humanity as a whole, for which we must all work together".*

EVALUATION OF NEW PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULA IN THE COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AND SOUTH-EAST EUROPE

LUCIO PUSCI

Centro Europeo dell'Educazione
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Introduction

The UNESCO subregional network for South and Southeast Europe, Codiesee[1], embraces ten countries with school systems that differ greatly one from another. The differences involve practically all levels of the educational structure, from primary to secondary and post-secondary.

In attempting a comparative study of these systems, Codiesee had to assume the existence of such structural and functional similarities as would make comparison possible.

The various projects in the Codiesee programme are aimed at deepening study of specific and significant aspects of the school institutions in the countries of the sub-region, with the aim of composing an ever more detailed picture of the educational and schooling service in its various branches and providing those responsible for educational policy and planning with useful stimuli and suggestions for reforms currently in progress or envisaged for the short/medium term.

1. *The geopolitical and socio-cultural background of European school systems*

The school system represents the political will of a country on the way its citizens will be educated.

This preliminary observation should simplify access to the multiplicity, differentiation and comparison of the school systems in countries in the Codiesee network[2] in the sense that it makes the reason for the different internal structure of the various systems immediately obvious. If the Constitution of a state is the obligatory point of reference not only for identification of the legal bases for organization of the school system but also for inferring the educational ends that the political power desires or must pursue in the society it administers, one can understand the difficulty at the present day and the impossibility in the past of creating a school system that is homogeneous among different countries. This is because the Constitution is, at least in theory, the mediation of the interest of all the statistically significant and important groups in a state in ethnic, ideological, and naturally political terms, in the modern sense of political tendency or militancy.

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[1] CODIESEE — Cooperation in research and Development for Innovation in Education in South and SouthEast Europe — is a subregional network of UNESCO, based in Paris, at 7 Place de Fontenoy. The international coordinator of the network is Dr. Hans-Wolf Rissom.

[2] The member countries of CODIESEE are: Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

Now, in a continent such as ours where the many ethnic groups and nationalities have roots in a long tradition of reciprocal confrontation designed mainly to accentuate their peculiarities and hence their differences, it is not difficult to find reasons to justify the multiplicity and differentiation that exist in school systems. One need only think, for example, of the different cultural models in the Slav, German, English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Greek and Italian areas; of the educational policies and philosophies, sometimes in conflict within the same geopolitical area; of the different guiding philosophies - liberal, socialist, Catholic, communist etc.; of the differing degrees of ethnic and linguistic uniformity within the various countries; of the intensity and vividness with which any given people sees its social and cultural identity, of the degree of cultural permeability, etc.

All these are reasons why it is still premature to suggest harmonization of European school systems, still more their organizational unification. However the possibility of a movement closer is open or better the possibility of mutual borrowing of organizational features, technical and methodological devices, planning and operating procedures, each country from time to time adapting to its own system the aspects that seem to bring improvements.

The recent impulse towards comparative research bears witness to the interest educational politicians have in gaining greater knowledge of the school systems in other countries with a view to perfecting their own. This is also the only possible route towards the desirable goal of harmonizing school systems in Europe, beginning with countries that are geographically, socially or culturally close.

2. *Compulsory schooling: from plurality of modules to unification*

This Codiesee project[3] covers only part of the system of schooling and education: the primary school, which is generally only the first part of the compulsory schooling programme.

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[3] The project referred to in this paper is CODIESEE Project I.2 on "Evaluation of new primary school curricula". International coordination is at the European Education Centre (Centro Europeo dell'Educazione), Villa Falconieri, Frascati (Rome), Italy.

The salient facts in the European situation, at least in the countries that are members of the Codiesee network[4], are the existence of a multiplicity of modules and differing requirements for compulsory schooling, together with the universal trend towards extending the period of compulsory schooling up to the age of university entrance or entry to the labour market.

Let us briefly summarise these aspects of the picture.

a) *The modules of compulsory schooling*

Some time ago compulsory schooling was a concept applied only to the primary or elementary school, usually limited to the age range 6-7 to 10-11. Nowadays compulsory schooling in almost every country extends to at least the lower secondary school and in several countries also downwards to kindergarten and upwards to higher secondary and vocational training. The differing legal bases have obviously had their consequences also in diversifying the modules in which schooling takes place, giving rise to a great variety of formulae, the result of compromises between what individual nations have inherited from the past and the need to adapt schooling to changing social, cultural and economic conditions.

Three fundamental levels of schooling can be identified in every country: kindergarten, primary school and secondary school. However the extent and structure of each, as well as the connection between and passage from one to the other, and the performance required of the pupils at the end of each cycle differ and often cannot even be compared.

Leaving aside the kindergarten, which is generally optional even when attended by high to very high percentages of children from the age of 2-3 up to 5-6, the picture presented by compulsory schools is not homogeneous or uniform, not even in terms of age at entry and maturity required (see Table 1).

In many countries (Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Federal Germany, Italy, Portugal and Turkey) the age for entry is set at six years of age. In others, for example Greece, it is five and a half; in Malta and progressively also in Turkey, five; in some of the Yugoslav republics it is seven, and in one country (Hungary) it is flexible, from five to seven, according to an evaluation of maturity for school. Nevertheless it is evident that the differences are minimal, since the tendency everywhere is to start formal instruction at the age of six, even though there may be a desire to begin compulsory school attendence at 5.

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[4] In this analysis we shall consider CODIESEE member countries (except Romania and Spain which did not take part in the project) plus Czechoslovakia and the Federal Republic of Germany, which were associated with the project though not CODIESEE members.

Tab. 1: Age of entry and length of compulsory education

Country	Age of entry	Length
Bulgaria	6	12
Czechoslovakia	6	12
Germany (Fed. Rep.)	6	12 (10)
Greece	$5\frac{1}{2}$	9
Hungary	5/6/7	8
Italy	6	8
Malta	5	11
Portugal	6	9
Turkey	6	8
Yugoslavia	6 (7)	8

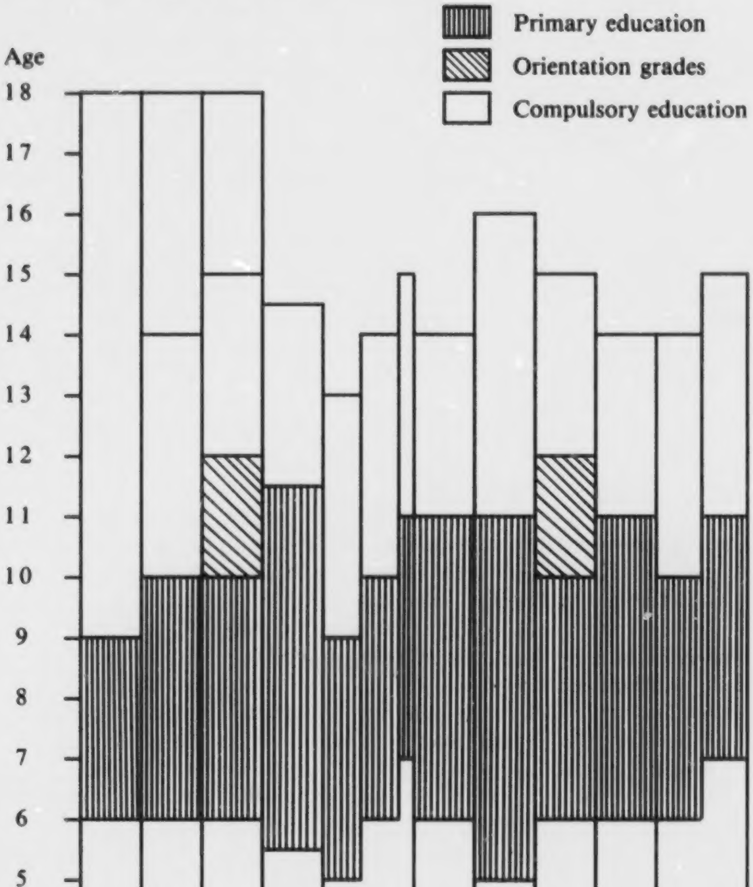
As for the minimum requirements for entry into the system of formal instruction, it should be noted that almost everywhere age is the criterion used to determine the right and duty to enroll and attend. However there is a tendency — already explicit and legalized in Hungary — to subordinate admission of the child to school to its possession of specific skills or abilities — the so-called minimum competences — in the social, psychomotor and cognitive spheres (e.g. ability to conceptualize).

Flexibility criteria, similar to those adopted in Hungary, are generally applied in other countries, for example in Italy, but without any specific recognition in the regulations, but usually exclusively, or practically exclusively to decide on the admission or otherwise to school of a child suspected of being mentally retarded.

There is clearly more variation in the lenght of schooling that is compulsory. The extremes are eight years in Italy, Yugoslavia, Turkey and Hungary and twelve years in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Federal Germany. Between these extremes there are Greece and Portugal with nine years, ten years in some German Lander and eleven years in Malta.

As school reforms take place, there has been a tendency, especially in the last decade, to extend the period of compulsory schooling towards the age for entrance into institutions of higher learning. This has occurred, for example, in the reforms implemented in Greece and Portugal and the same idea is to be found in the proposed reforms in Italy, which envisage extending compulsory schooling to sixteen years of age (tenth year of schooling), thus including the first two years of high school or, according to some proposals, technical school.

Tab. 2: Compulsory and primary education



The picture is still more varied when it comes to modules and cycles (see Table 2). Here it is practically impossible to find any homogeneity apart, perhaps, from some parallels in names and timing between Italy and Turkey. It seems that it is the concept of compulsory schooling itself that changes from one country to another according to the different ways in which basic, or primary or elementary education is seen as the right/duty of all citizens and the freedom to opt, at a more or less early age for more qualifying forms of education/instruction both in relation to further studies directed towards future employment or the passage from basic education to the world of work.

Let us take as an example the compulsory school systems that are unified or integrated up to the level of university entrance. We find these well defined in, for example, Bulgaria and Czechoslovakia. In these cases the coextention of compulsory schooling with a unified type of instruction responds to a cardinal principle of these countries' education policies: that all citizens must possess a basic education wide enough to permit them, on terminating formal instruction, either to enter the world of work or enter institutions of higher education or university, which in this view is equivalent to the first alternative.

In other countries there is a different conception of basic education and compulsion — and hence the unified cultural platform is restricted to a shorter period, diversifying the educational provision in the secondary school. This is the case in Greece, Italy, Yugoslavia, Turkey and Hungary.

The system in the Federal Republic of Germany is untypical. There, the period of compulsory schooling lasts for 12 years, but the period of basic education common to all is the shortest anywhere. The basic school (*Grundschule*), which is the same for all children, lasts only for the first four years of schooling (6 in West Berlin), after which the children are asked to choose between four types of post-primary school with different timing cycles and different outlets. It is, however, to be added that if one chooses to get a job immediately after compulsory school leave at the age of 16 one has nevertheless to go on with his formal education, obviously part-time, within the *Berufsschule*. That means for most a *de facto* extension of the compulsory education up to the 18th year of age, even if in a reduced form.

b) *Short/medium term prospects*

From the school reforms that have taken place recently, are currently in progress, or are being planned in the countries of Europe it can be deduced that the trend everywhere is to extend the period of compulsory education and unify the education supplied during this compulsory period. Most countries have already extended the period of compulsory schooling to 15-16 years of age (9-10 years of schooling). There is also increasing interest in including at least the last year of kindergarten in the compulsory schooling area as a year of preparation for formal education. Naturally, this is still a proposal, as is the extension of compulsory schooling to sixteen years of age (10 of schooling) even in countries that were among the first to introduce the concept, for example Italy.

This policy of unification of schooling systems in terms of age of commencement and minimum duration seems to correspond to the need, clearly felt in contemporary society, to offer to and require from every citizen a wider and more complete basic general education of a kind that will permit a more active and fruitful participation in the social, cultural and economic progress of his or her country.

The reform projects launched or being studied in the countries of Europe demonstrate the ever more firmly-held conviction of educationalists and educational policy-makers that, while increasing the level of basic general education is a great achievement, it is not sufficient if the basic education requires choices by young people that involve irreversable channeling towards certain occupations. This would, in fact, be the result of excessively early selections of educational directions, unless these were integrated into a system with an extensive common base.

There are today various models, some of them already established, others being tested or designed, for unified or integrated compulsory schools. The leaders, perhaps as result of the fact that they are already tested and have given good results, are those of Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, and the compulsory schools of Italy, Hungary, Turkey and, following the recent reforms, also Greece.

In the model adopted by almost every country in Eastern Europe, unification covers both years of schooling and curricula. The 10-12 years of general education offer children approximately the same quantity and quality of education, with a variety of directions and therefore of occupational outlets in the final years, but without excluding the possibility of changes in direction and therefore occupational prospects.

The process of standardization has been slower in other countries, especially in Western Europe. Here the concept of a standardized school has been universally put into effect only at the primary level (in Italy and Spain and now also Portugal, Greece, Turkey and Hungary extended up to the lower secondary level), whereas it is still in an experimental stage in the higher secondary. One of the basic reasons for this choice can perhaps be found in the predilection of many social and political groups for plurality of directions and options at the secondary level, so that, if the integrated system is deemed optimal fo the primary school and at most for post-primary or middle school, it does not satisfy the criteria of educational policy for the classes of the higher secondary in which the British comprehensive model is considered more suitable. This would, in fact, preserve both equality of educational opportunity and the possibility of early development of individual talents and inclinations, to the benefit of both individuals and society. The comprehensive school, like that which runs parallel to the three traditional modules in the Federal Republic of Germany, or like the "biennium" talked about in Italy in the context of secondary school reform, ought to offer the egalitarian basis in its common nucleus and therefore also the possibility of internal migration within the system. At the same time it ought not to excessively delay the choice of direction towards various forms of further study or occupational training, as may often happen in integrated or unified systems.

3. *Primary education programmes*

a) *Basic primary and elementary education*

Passing from discussion of compulsory schooling to the primary school, one notes first of all a not insignificant discrepancy in the way "primary" education is understood.

Although the tendency at the present day is towards international uniformity in the terminology for the internal divisions of school systems into the three orders of primary, secondary and tertiary education, in the texts of laws and the language of bureaucracies and educationalists the traditional terms adopted in individual countries are still used, so that the same term does not always have the same meaning and extent. This applies also to "primary education".

In some countries, for example Italy and Turkey, primary education coincides exactly with what is called "elementary", from which the child moves on to the secondary, divided into two levels. The first, also called middle school (in Italy "lower middle") being compulsory and the second, the higher secondary school, optional.

In other countries, such as Hungary and Czechoslovakia, but also including Spain, Portugal, Greece and, when the new structure has been fully implemented, Turkey, primary education has a more restricted connotation than elementary, the latter being understood as general basic education and the former as first level elementary.

There are some atypical cases. Malta, for example, has six years of primary school followed by five of secondary, both being compulsory. Bulgaria, with its unified secondary polytechnic school model, considers only the first theree years of education to be primary. Then the Federal Republic of Germany has a basic school (*Grundschule*) of four years (6 in Berlin), after which four options are offered: the *Haupschule* with its five years of general education to meet the full time schooling obligation (which is followed by three years of part-time vocational training); the *Realschule*, of six years, the *Gymnasium* of nine years and the *Gesamtschule* of five years.

b) *The objectives of primary education*

Considering the different ways in which primary education is viewed in relation to the entire arch of basic education, it is hard to attempt a comparison between the programmes of primary schools in the strict sense, unless one decides to assume a specific number of years of schooling for the comparison, chosen solely on the basis that they are the first in the educational processes.

In this Codiesee project it has been agreed to consider the school that covers the age range from 5-6 to 10-11 years as primary, regardless of the official name given to this cycle in individual countries.

We shall therefore draw attention here to only a few, though fundamental aspects of the form of educational programmes in the primary school, in this sense, in the countries considered.

In all the reforms of primary school programmes recently implemented or currently planned, the dominant aim is greater attention to teaching methods that will promote acquisition of basic abilities by the pupils, with these abilities being defined in much wider terms than in the past.

Recent reforms of systems or programmes in primary schools

Bulgaria	1981
Czechoslovakia	1971
Greece	1982
Germany (West)	1982
Hungary	1977 (revised 1985)
Italy	1985
Malta	1988
Portugal	1986
Turkey	1973 (revised 1977)
Yugoslavia	1984

It is obvious that the idea of a primary school that restricts itself to teaching the pupils to read, write and count is considered out of date everywhere. Basic abilities today include the acquisition of different languages — including the iconic, musical, corporeal, gestual, mimic and also computer and foreign languages — and also the psychological, intellectual and social aptitudes indispensable not only for continuing studies but also for harmonious development of the personality. In every case the text of the law emphasizes as a novelty of the reform this specific objective of the primary school, which thus becomes not only the place where the child learns basic skills, indispensable for entry into social life and the world of work but is also the place where children are formed as persons and as citizens.

Certainly it is true that the accent is still, especially in the first 2-3 years of formal instruction, on linguistic ability — the mother tongue written and spoken — and on the rudiments of arithmetic, abilities which are in any case recognized as prerequisites for any further aspect of cultural, scientific and social training. But an ever more important space is provided for expressive and visual education, scientific and computer literacy, development of critical and creative abilities, exploration of the physical, social, cultural and productive environment, and ability to communicate in other languages.

Now, becoming aware of these new objectives of the primary school has led educationists and teachers to study new and more effective strategies to optimize the operation of this phase of intruction.

The official programmes nowadays speak of training "areas" which include science, historical and geographical education, education for image, sound and music, motor education (all areas quite new to Italy, for example) with the same dignity as the linguistic and logical-mathematical areas, though with less hours allocated to them. Naturally, the emphasis varies from one country to another. In general there is a marked emphasis on linguistic-historical-cultural and on logical-mathematical and scientific education. However it is also clear that emphasis is given to social education (especially in Portugal, Greece, Malta and Turkey), to esthetic education (e.g. in Italy, Czechoslovakia and Germany), and to education for work (Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Yugoslavia). However the differences in emphasis are slight and do not seem to affect the substantial homogeneity of programme contents.

Apart from the denomination of "areas" or quasi-subjects, there are also many novelties affecting their contents. In the linguistic area, for example, teaching of at least one foreign language is entering progressively into teaching programmes. In the logical-mathematical area, information technology, probability calculations and the principles of statistics have made their appearance. In the historical-geographical area, intercultural and ecological-environmental education are gaining a foothold.

Another new feature present everywhere can be found in the methodological approach. In this renewal the criterion of multidisciplinarity and interdisciplinarity in planning and conducting teaching activities is a notable feature; though it has not yet been applied in most schools, it is explicitly contemplated in the legislation.

Finally, on the question of tools, it seems that the text book is assuming a new role everywhere, no longer being considered the main teaching tool but simply one among many, though one with a function of orientation and guidance on the use of other tools such as audiovisuals and other educational resources which the schools are invited to make available to the pupils.

c) *New trends in teaching structures*

The enrichment and differentiation of the contents of primary education have shown up the inadequacy of the old structures, starting with the definition of the professional skills of teachers and heads.

Although no country has thought of translating the teaching "areas" into school subjects, the care with which the new programmes share out the contents by quasi-subject areas has everywhere been interpreted by educationists and teachers in the sense of a hoped for greater detail and depth in the various individual fields of teaching. The plausibility of this interpretation is confirmed by the increased allocation of teaching time, with the school day being extended to what in some cases seems an excessive length.

There seem to be two main problems posed by the new regulations: 1) The need to retrain teachers and heads so that they can respond with proper competence to the expectations expressed in the new programmes; 2) To study suitable methods and tools for systematic and continuous evaluation of the internal and external effectiveness of the new programmes and of their implementation.

We shall not discuss the first problem here since it is the subject of other studies by both Unesco and other institutions[5]. It need only be mentioned that in every country special programmes have been started for special retraining of teachers and heads and programmes for their continuous retraining are being prepared[6]. We shall dwell at more length on the second problem, which is the subject of this Unesco/Codiesee project.

4. Evaluation of new primary school curricula

a) *School reform and product testing*

Even a rapid reading of primary school programmes is sufficient for an appreciation of the capital importance that the political and social forces in every country attribute to this phase of schooling in terms of forming the person and the citizen.

The substantial investments by governments in renewing school organizations and programmes have, however, directed attention, ever more pressingly, to the question of how to ensure that the quality and quantity of the supply is matched by a product that meets social expectations and corresponds to the expenditure of human and financial resources.

In other words, this is the problem of evaluating the supply of education, a problem that is obviously not limited to primary education but concerns the whole system of education and training. If the present Unesco/Codiesee project is directed towards primary education it is not because it is imagined that this phase presents specific problems in terms of evaluation methods and tools but rather because programmes for basic or primary instruction have recently been the subject of reform or radical revision in almost all the countries considered here. These reforms have also generally provided for an experimental stage with the aim of evaluating the programmes themselves and the ways in which they have been implemented.

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[5] As an example, there is the UNESCO/CODIESEE project on "Training school directors and educational advisers in the countries of South and Southeast Europe" coordinated by Vladimir Mostrov of the Institute for the Promotion of Education, Skopje, Yugoslavia.

[6] For examples, see the national reports published hereafter.

b) *Centralization and decentralization*

One of the key problems in evaluation of school programmes in general and in every country seems to be that of finding a proper balance between centralization and decentralization of responsibility for checking the quality of school service and the supply of education.

The first and fundamental distinguishing feature in European — and not only European — school systems is to be found in the different organizational profile which is more or less centralized according to the country, leaving more or less space to local bodies and individual schools.

Although neither of these two tendencies is present today in its pure form in any of the countries considered, a more or less pronounced adhesion to one or the other can be recognized in each. Thus a centralizing tendency can be observed in countries such as Italy, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Portugal and Turkey, and, given its size, Malta, whereas the opposite, decentralizing tendency is to be seen in Germany and Yugoslavia.

In recent years, however, as can be seen from the regulations issued, there has been an ever more evident effort in the countries of the first group to balance the need for central control of the whole school system by involvement of regional or local government at both policy/legislation and planning/evaluation levels, and in the countries of the second group to find a political or scientific agency that is at least able to coordinate the work of regional and local government bodies.

This phenomenon is very apparent, for example, in Hungary, where the law reforming the primary school curricula cut a sizeable slice of programme definition and evaluation power and handed it over completely to individual schools and teachers. In Italy, too, the law seems to give local bodies — especially the IRRSAE and the "Provveditorati agli Studi" — a certain independence of initiative, though in fact decision-making power still remains almost exclusively in the hands of central bodies and the Ministry bureaucracy.

On the other side of the divide, in Germany and Yugoslavia, the situation is more complex, since the respective Constitutions confer sovereignty over educational matters on the Republics in Yugoslavia and on the Lander in Germany. We therefore have a situation of almost total decentralization at the federal level, and of more or less marked centralization at the Republic/Lander level, though in both cases there are federal bodies with functions of consultation and coordination.

Distribution of the various countries along this line of stress between centralization and decentralization may aid interpretation of the devices provided in each country to evaluate the quality of the school service and of the education supplied. The efforts mentioned above to find the right balance between the two extremes may also be a reason for the multiplication of evaluation "agencies" on the one hand and the frequent attempts on the other to set up a body at the central level, a body of the maximum scientific and technical reliability to process all the information and evaluations arriving from other agencies and supply not only reliable guidelines for teachers and evaluators but also criteria for correcting and improving educational methods and tools, as well as for redefining the contents of the programmes themselves if and when that is required.

c) *Curriculum evaluation agencies*

The evaluation of school curricula is a relatively new concept that has not yet entered the administrative routine of the school but is encountered with ever increasing frequency in educational research and in the education policy debate. There need be no surprise, therefore, that organizations set up with that specific task are absent almost everywhere but that various hypotheses or proposals on the role, functions and competences to be assigned to such organizations are encountered in the specialist literature.

Meanwhile, an embryonic system of evaluation can already be recognized in every country and is centred on primary school programmes. The system is developing in two positions: within and external to the school administration.

Of the bodies internal to the school administration, one can first note the predominance of functions of simple administrative control and discipline of the school service at various levels, where the task of evaluating programmes is mostly limited to checking that individual teachers carry out the official teaching programmes. This is particularly true of central, Regional and Provincial District government bodies, whereas at the individual school level one can observe greater attention being paid to the effectiveness of the programme content and the method of teaching in relation to the characteristics and benefits obtained by the pupils.

From the regulations of every country it appears that, at least on paper, inspectors or school advisers and heads ought to perform evaluation tasks in the sense of evaluating programmes. But these same people also have administrative and disciplinary responsibilities and recent studies, including the Unesco/Codiesee one on the role and function of school heads, inspectors and school advisers show that the latter functions markedly predominate over programme evaluation.

Central organizations responsible for school administration are beginning to show that they are aware of this state of things. Believing that a permanent programme evaluation service is indispensable and also aware that it cannot be provided by existing organisms within the administration, not even by those with the right and duty to do so, they are turning ever more frequently, almost systematically, to outside bodies and especially to committees of experts, research institutes and universities. The scientific and technical contribution of these bodies has proved essential in all countries, for example in formulating and validating new programmes for the primary school. This experience has generally led the school authorities to seek quasi-institutional support from these agencies for continuous programme evaluation.

This is the explanation, for example, for the extremely important role played in Hungary by the National Pedagogic Institute, which can be considered to be in a certain sense within the system; or of the ever greater weight in Malta of the University's Institute of Education; or the ever more precise definition in Portugal of the tasks of the Department of Educational Planning; or again the research work carried out by institutes for the promotion of education in some Yugoslav republics.

Other countries still seem to be far from this approach, using such outside bodies only rarely, when an opportunity arises, and for the rest abandoning the evaluation of school programmes to the initiative of universities or research institutes, though without a stable and institutional connection to the administration. In such cases the action of outside bodies seems more effective at the intermediate and local levels. In Italy, for example, it is mainly the Regional research institutes that sponsor studies of pupil benefit and teaching methods and that offer systematic help with in-service training and updating of heads and teachers. There are also many schools that have done research on a local scale to obtain information of value for improvement of the education offered.

Finally, emphasis must be laid on the usually generous and effective contribution made by trade unions and professional organizations in every country, especially on a local scale. At times these duplicate the work of government bodies in evaluating school programmes, but more often they make up for their absence.

d) *Methods and tools for evaluation*

It is well-known that the value of any evaluation is directly proportional to the rigour and effectiveness with which it is carried out and to the correctness of use of the means of investigation.

This principle obviously also applies to the evaluation of school programmes and it is when judged by this principle that educational systems show themselves to be particularly weak; that is to say incapable of obtaining for themselves a continuous feedback on their effectiveness and efficiency.

It is not sufficient for such a purpose to have an evaluation agency or to commission an occasional sample survey. Such things are essential or at least useful. But it is also necessary to have scientifically valid set of tools and methodologies to provide a frame of reference for both planning the work of evaluation and coordination and conducting the studies. It seems that such a thing does not yet exist at either national or international level, though some efforts are being made, especially by certain international organizations[7] to at least make a start on the foundations.

One prerequisite for a correct and reliable evaluation of the quality of education offered, in this instance in primary schools, is a table of indicators and criteria for the quality of the programme contents and of the methods and techniques of teaching in relation to the quality of the benefit expected in the pupils — benefit being understood, naturally, in the sense of the objectives of the educational programmes.

In the absence of a table of indicators or quality criteria corroborated scientifically and recognized by all, the evaluation agencies of the various countries rely at present on empirical research and surveys of an almost exclusively quantitative nature, usually evaluating school programmes on the basis of the quantity of notions learned by the pupils, without any possibility of evaluating the quality of their personal development in an overall sense[8].

In the countries reviewed here — but not only in them — two basic methods are used for evaluating school programmes: a) the internal agencies of the administration, mainly inspectors and school heads, who observe school work directly; b) outside agencies — universities, research centres, professional associations etc. — that mainly conduct empirical research on representative samples.

Although both methods can boast excellent scientific references and are in fact applied with rigour in many studies, — international, national and local — different scientific and technical standards are encountered in their use in evaluating school programmes. Universities and research centres generally conduct their empirical research using tested tools applied with due rigour, from sampling to testing, from questionnaires to structured or semistructured interviews, and the results are commonly considered reliable. Administrative bodies, on the other hand, use on the spot observation, generally without following any particular plan of operation or proven protocols, limiting themselves to transcribing impressions on the basis of objectives that are more bureaucratic-administrative than pedagogic-didactic in character.

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[7] Only one example need be cited here. The I.E.A. (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) programme with its now numerous projects, some completed (Six Subjects Study, Mathematics, Second Science Study, Written Composition), others in progress (Pre-primary Project, Computer Education, Reading Literacy etc.) is building up a series of methodologies and tools for programme evaluation that can be used both within countries and in international comparisons. If not yet the bones of a frame of reference, it represents a substantial and significant contribution to it.

[8] At least one exception should be mentioned. This is the recently-started IEA Reading Literacy project which limits its objective to functional reading ability but will certainly provide a valuable frame of reference for evaluation of minimum ability for entry to formal instruction and also, it is hoped, for evaluation of the average standard of linguistic competence of pupils on completing compulsory schooling and at some intermediate stages.

The difference in quality that is encountered under this aspect seems to be due, on the one side, to the specific nature of the surveys carried out by outside bodies, interested in now one and then another aspect of the educational process but almost never given a mandate that embraces the whole supply of education, not even for a single section of a school system; on the other side to the limits of the institutional mandate and of the technical, methodological and scientific competences of the administrative bodies.

One must, however, take note of the fact that school administrations are taking ever more active notice of these problems. Proof is to be found in the attempts by certain countries, such as Hungary, Malta and in some sectors Italy to construct continuously up-dated data bases as objective points of reference for all agencies and individuals engaged in evaluation at all levels.

Finally, one must remember the ever closer involvement of almost all the countries in projects of international comparative research, projects which, though centred on individual disciplines or specific problems currently constitute one of the most effective tools for evaluation of those aspects or sectors of the curricula that are the subject of the study. It will, perhaps, be this international participation that does most to make education policy-makers and administrators more conscious of the problem of evaluating school programmes, at the same time encouraging the setting up of adequate bodies to carry out this important task.

BULGARIA

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1. Introduction

The teaching system in the People's Republic of Bulgaria is undergoing a period of overhaul, innovation and reform. The new guiding ideas behind the teaching reform consist of:

— raising the level of instruction of all workers by means of general secondary teaching and by forms of on going (adult) education;

— creating the indispensable conditions for the harmonious development of the personality and for its full realization under conditions of democratization and autonomy;

— guaranteeing to every child access to training in his desired vocation, and to slowly bring closer together general education and vocational training;

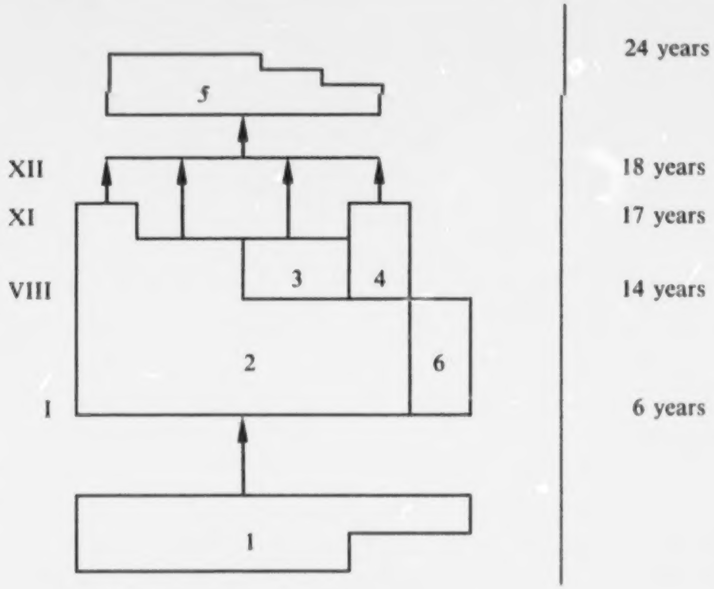
— differentiating teaching according to the interests, preferences and possibilities of the pupils, as well as according to the needs of society, combining the different forms of this teaching: general and compulsory, optional, elective, vocational;

— setting up an effective socio-pedagogic system on the basis of the integration of teaching, culture, science, and production;

— educating the younger generation in the spirit of the nation's cultural traditions, and in the spirit of respect for every human value.

— working up a three-level structure for secondary and higher education by combining the three types of education: fundamental, broad guage, and vocational.

Teaching system structure



1. Nursery schools for children from 3 years to 6.
2. Three-level unified secondary polytechnical schools and specialized secondary schools (specializing in foreign languages, in music, in the arts, in mathematics, etc.) for ages from 6 to 17 years.
3. Secondary vocational and technical schools (from 14 through 16 years).
4. Technical and scientific senior high schools («Lycaeums») (ages 14 through 17 years).
5. Higher and semi-higher teaching institutes and scientific and technical senior high schools following secondary education.
6. Special schools for the physically and mentally handicapped.

2. Primary education

Since 1981 Bulgaria has been applying a new schooling plan, new study programs, and new textbooks and methodology guides for first category teachers[1], the schooling plan for the primary grades (one through three) is as follows:[2]:

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[1] More details in «Development of education 1986-1988», National report of P.R. of Bulgaria, Ministry of Culture, Science and Education, Sofia, 1988 (International Conference, Geneva 1989).

[2] Information given according to the guidelines forwarded to the partipants in the project.

Subjects	Grades:	I	II	III	Total
	No. of weeks	32	32	32	96
	No. of hours of school/week				
1. Native language		8	8	7	23
2. Russian		—	—	3	3
3. Arithmetic		4	4	4	12
4. Nature study		—	—	1/0	0,5
5. Study of one's country		1	1	0/1	2,5
6. The fine arts		1	1	1	3
7. Music		1	1	1	3
8. Physical education		3	3	3	9
9. Vocational education		2	2	2	6
Totals:		20	20	22	62

3. The new study programmes in the primary grades

One of the great special features of the innovations introduced in 1981-82 is the use of integration and of integration tie-ups, carried out during the teaching of the varius subjects.

Integration is sought in a) the entirety of the natural and social reality surrounding the child, which is the object of study during the primary grades; b) an entire development of the human personality (it has been shown that the personality, the child's included, develops in a whole manner, and not by parts); c) in the entirety and the differentiation of human knowledge: the human mind artificially breaks up reality, differentiates knowledge in order to more completely incorporate it.

Integration tie-ups are carried out in school documentation (the schooling plan, the study programme, the texts, methodological guides and so on), and in the work of teaching and education by a) vertical integration and b) horizontal integration.

By vertical integration, established in the school documentation, the aim is to ensure the ceaseless, overall development (spiralwise) of the personalities of the rising generations. In this sense primary school (first through third grades) is conceived as a very important part: the beginning, the basis, the point of departure, of the pupil's school. By vertical integration are created: unified approaches in line with the youngsters' ages, perspective and continuity of knowledge and of aptitudes. The idea of vertical integration has displayed its usefulness in the reconsideration of the idea concerning the continuity of schooling content and of school and education work.

The idea of horizontal integration is also very successful. By this aspect of the general idea the attempt is made to present reality, the subject of study in the primary grades, in such fashion that the pupils will understand its essence. It is considered that this objective will be achieved by subordinating the teaching of all subjects during some given period to one fundamental idea. The fundamental ideas form part of a number of overall themes, identified for each grade. There is continuity between these themes. A portion of the content of a theme will be brought out during the first grade, and knowledge concerning it will be further enriched during the third grade[3].

At the time the ideas relative to integration are being actually realized, there is the desire to preserve the systematisation of the different school subjects in order to build within the pupils ideas and images on the subject studies that are more complete.

The teaching cadres for the first grade are formed at the higher or semi-higher levels. The reform of the system for training teachers began in 1983, this reform being carried out mainly in the higher institutes of instruction. Faculties for the training of primary school teachers have been created in the universities.

The development and improvement of teacher qualification are seen to by the teacher updating institutes, which organize courses, seminars, and provide individual training as well.

4. Institutions tied to evaluating the study programmes

All the innovations that have taken place in the school content, in the organization of the work of teaching and education, or in teaching and educational techniques aim at raising the level of the instruction and education of the young. The biggest difficulties appear when it is necessary to test, by objective scientific methods, that those changes seen in the pupils (where such changes exist) are due to the innovations made in school and educational work.

Evaluation of the results of the new study programme at the teacher level. It is a traditional rule that each teacher closely follows the development of his pupils. This is carried out by means of: a) the individual examination of the pupil: b) the performance of various kinds of individual tasks by the pupil; c) the participation of the pupils in activities outside of class or extracurricular activities. On the basis of these observation the teacher makes his evaluation of the pupil and discusses with his parents (where necessary) the programme of his future activities[4].

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[3] See: *Curricula for grades 1-3*, Sofia, 1982, p. 66-112.

[4] More details in A. MADJAROV *Maths education for 7 year-old children*, Sofia, 1987; C. ZDRAVKOVA, *Learning to write*, Sofia, 1988.

The teachers observations just mentioned represent an important source of information on the results of the innovations. But they are not adequately objective, owing to the differences existing in the training of the teachers themselves, and often owing to the most various reasons.

Evaluation of the results of the study programme at the level of the school administration. The school administration is interested in knowing at every moment what the teacher's level of school and educational work is, as well as the quality of the pupils' knowledge and aptitude. With this aim in view the school administration ceaselessly checks on the instruction and education being given out by: a) direct observation of each teacher's work at school and out of school; b) the observation of the pupils' behaviour in school and out; c) the performance of individual work with all the pupils or only a part of them. One new element in this technique is the fact that the reasons for the different level of success are being sought in more indepth fashion, and that it is desired to make an overall analysis of the reasons behind this fact.

Evaluation of the school programmes at the city level. In the city commissions for spiritual development schools inspectors are working full time. At the same time, while they are working on such purely administrative tasks such as: the formulation of proposals for the appointment of teachers, for the local distribution of pupils and so on they are also studying the level of the work of teaching and education. The procedures and techniques used are the same as those used by the school administrations. The results of their studies are presented to the higher authorities. The importance of the information obtained by these inspectors is very great when the time comes to make changes within the school system.

Evaluation of the study programmes at the national level. The school inspectors having nationwide functions periodically study the pupils' knowledge and aptitudes. This is done by means of independent exams assigned to the pupils. Their content is chosen in such fashion as to obtain information on their mentalities. After this information is generalized, it is placed at the disposal of the authorities competent to make decisions. Often the information obtained is published in the educational press.

5. Research and experimentation

Once the implementation of the new schooling system in the primary grades (one through three) was proceeded to, the problem of the objective information, obtained by scientific means with a view to being of use in making decisions concerning school administration took on first-order importance. On the initiative of the higher authorities at the «Clement d'Ohrid» university in Sofia a research laboratory working in the field of diagnostic pedagogy was created. This laboratory's fundamental objective is to gather information by scientific means on the effects of the new system on the knowledge, aptitudes, behaviour and overall development of the pupils of the first through third grades. Eminent specialists are working in the laboratory, and they worked up the techniques and the content of the studies. In 1982 through 1984 they carried out studies with pupils of the first three grades. The results were placed at the disposal of the authorities and a report: «The final evaluation of the results of the school and educational work in the first through third grades» was issued[5]. In it the results were stated and the directions for improving the innovations were identified[6]. In this case, the study results served as the basis for the changes made in the decisions concerning school administration.

The laboratory's research work is going ahead, now with pupils of the fourth through seventh grades. Thus, an extended scientific observation of the pupils who entered school at the age of six years during the 1981-82 school year is being made. In 1989 the authorities reviewed once more the results of the diagnostic pedagogy laboratory, and the necessary decisions were taken[7].

The technique used by the laboratory mentioned has its imperfections too: in most cases the results are statements of existing facts, that do not demonostrate the causes behind them. The results do make it possible to draw conclusions as to the material assimilated and as to the moral principles learned, but it would be difficult to draw motivated scientific conclusions as to the pupils' overall development.

There are in Bulgaria one educational research institute and three teacher-upgrading institutes. The scientific researchers and professors in these institutes are also studying the effects of the changes made on the pupils. The authorities will make use of this information as well. It is hoped to utilize the information coming from the most various sources and gathered by the most various techniques.

6. The content of the study programme

The study plan for the first grade calls for the teaching of the following disciplines: native language, arithmetic, knowledge of nature, knowledge of one's country, the Russian language, the fine arts, music, physical education, and vocational education.

The teaching of the native language uses the largest amount of school time. The objective of school work leads to the intense, optimal development (for the pupils' ages) of the written and spoken language, the development of the pupil's possibilities of assimilating the literary works accessible to him, the working out of culture in their behaviour and in their manner of expressing themselves, and the stimulation of their interest in reading and in literature.

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[5] See: *The final evaluation of the results of school and education work in the 1st through 3rd grades*, Sofia, 1985.

[6] *The final evaluation...*, pp. 16-21.

[7] See: G. Bukov, «*Information*» in *Information Bulletin* (Ministry of Culture, Science and Education), 1989, no. 4, pp. 41-47.

The school work in arithmetic takes up the second largest amount of school time. As is the rule in nearly every country in the world, the pupils study the positive whole numbers up to one million and the operations performed on them: addtion, subtraction, multiplication and division. They learn the algorithms used to calculate mentally and in writing. They acquire aptitudes for using their arithmetical knowledge in finding the answers to various situations that might come up in life. By the process of teaching arithmetic the teachers try first of all to develop the pupils' capacity for logical and abstract thought, which is to say to provide them a substantial intellectual development.

By the study of their country and of nature, just as through excursion, the pupils make acquaintance of the natural and social milieu surrounding them. They learn the history, geography, and ecology of their place of birth. This aims at the acquisition of elementary knowledge about their native environment and on the social organization of their local community.

About one-third of school time (in the various grades) is given over to the esthetic education and development of the pupils. During school and non-school hours devoted to music, the fine arts, various shop activities and physical education, the pupils acquire knowledge and aptitutdes in the various domains of the arts, and their positive behaviour is stimulated relative to the artistic culture, as is their love for it, and their availability to creating within chosen areas.

The third grade sees the beginning of the study of languages, starting with Russian. The schoolwork at this stage aims at the creation of aptitudes and habits in the field of the spoken and written language. The pupils learn to listen to and to understand the Russian language, to discuss simple topics, outlined in the course program, to read and understand Russian text, to use the material they have studied to express their thoughts in written and oral form.

Primary school provides too the possibility of studying, on an optional basis, such foreign languages as English, French, and German, after the first grade. By this means the foundations are laid for the assimilation of the aptitude for oral communication. Beginning to study a foreign language contributed to the pupils' intellectual and spiritual development, stimulating their thought, their cognitive and intellectual faculties, and enriching their general and linguistic culture.

The ideas forming part of the school studies program in the school's intention, find their continuation during the teaching and education process of the fourth through seventh grades. During this second school period the general image of the world and society, presented empirically from the first through third grades, is enriched by additions to the course content in the domain of the social and natural sciences. During this period the transition to the systematic study of the sciences is accomplished (in particular during the period from the third through fifth grades). The systematic study of history and geography begins during the fifth grade, biology beginning in the sixth grade and physics and chemistry in the seventh. During this second period the pupils study two foreign languages: Russian and a western European language (of their choice). Special attention too is given to the children's artistic and aesthetic education.

7. *Conclusions*

The evaluation of the study program is an important question, and certainly a current one. Its objective is to discover methods and means for studying the effect of the innovations made in the teaching and education process on the general education of the pupils, which would be: a) simplified, so as to be useable by every teacher; b) adequately scientific; c) adequately objective; d) adequately brief; e) that would permit its treatment by data processors; f) that would also permit the starting up of quantitative analyses.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

National Report of the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical Training

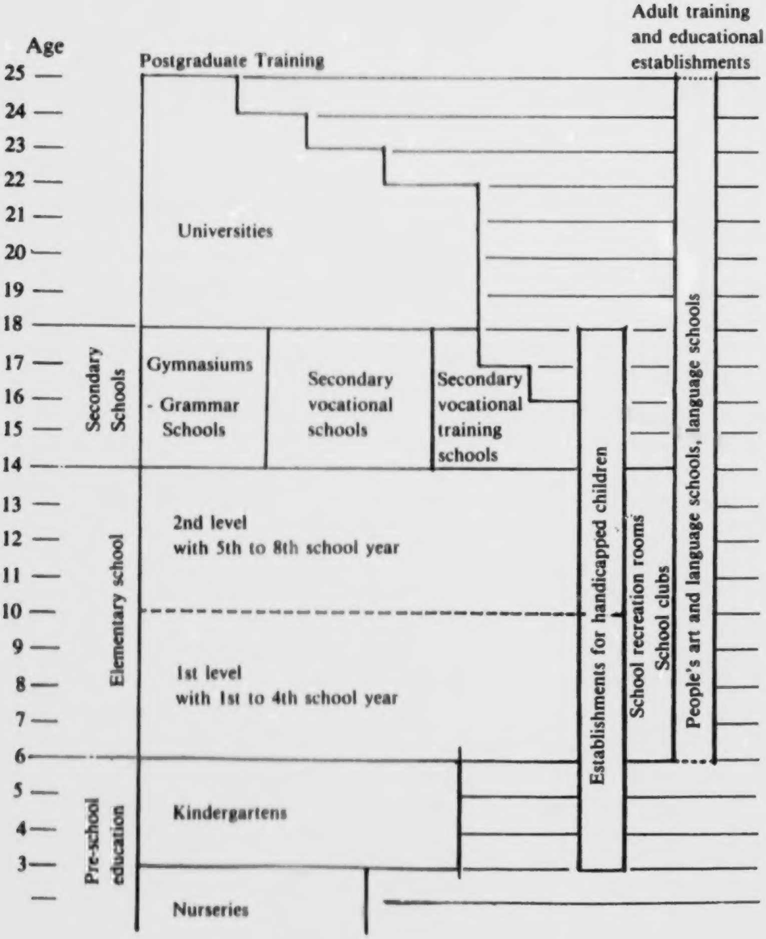
1. The Education System of the CSR

The foundation of the educational system is the uniform system of schools and educational establishments of an expressive, generally polytechnical character. Attendance is compulsory for children from 6 to 16 years of age. Schools of the same level and of the same direction operate on the territory of the Czechoslovakia Socialist Republic in accordance with a uniform curriculum and with uniform textbooks, respecting national specificities. A uniform educational work programme is binding for nurseries and kindergartens.

The language of instruction in Czechoslovakia schools is Czech and Slovak. At pre-school establishments, at elementary and secondary schools, established for children and young people of Hungarian, Ukrainian and Polish nationality, instruction is carried out in their native language. For children of German nationality the German language has been introduced as a voluntary subject, or German language study groups were formed. If they master literary Czech or Slovak, it warrants further studies and makes them fully qualified for work in any sphere of social life in Czechoslovakia.

All schools and establishments of the educational system are public: they are accessible to all the citizens of the Czechoslovak Socialist Republic under the same conditions regardless of nationality, sex, means and social status. Studies at schools of all levels and direction to acquire the highest possible degree of education is a significant part of our state's policy.

Table 1: The educational system in the czechoslovak socialist republic


Age
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23
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15
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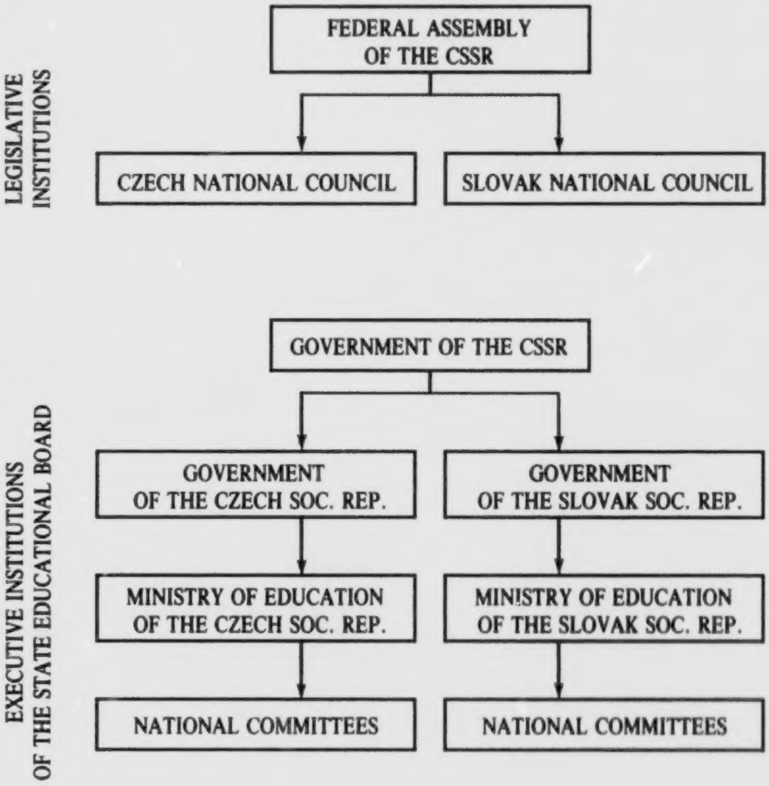
6
5
4
3
Postgraduate Training
Adult training and educational establishments
Universities
Secondary Schools
Gymnasiums - Grammar Schools
Secondary vocational schools
Secondary vocational training schools
Elementary school
2nd level with 5th to 8th school year
1st level with 1st to 4th school year
Pre-school education
Kindergartens
Nurseries
Establishments for handicapped children
School recreation rooms
School clubs
People's art and language schools, language schools

Table 2: Management of education in the Czechoslovak socialist republic


LEGISLATIVE INSTITUTIONS
FEDERAL ASSEMBLY OF THE CSSR
CZECH NATIONAL COUNCIL
SLOVAK NATIONAL COUNCIL
EXECUTIVE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE EDUCATIONAL BOARD
GOVERNMENT OF THE CSSR
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NATIONAL COMMITTEES
NATIONAL COMMITTEES

Table 3: Management of education in the Czech Socialist Republic

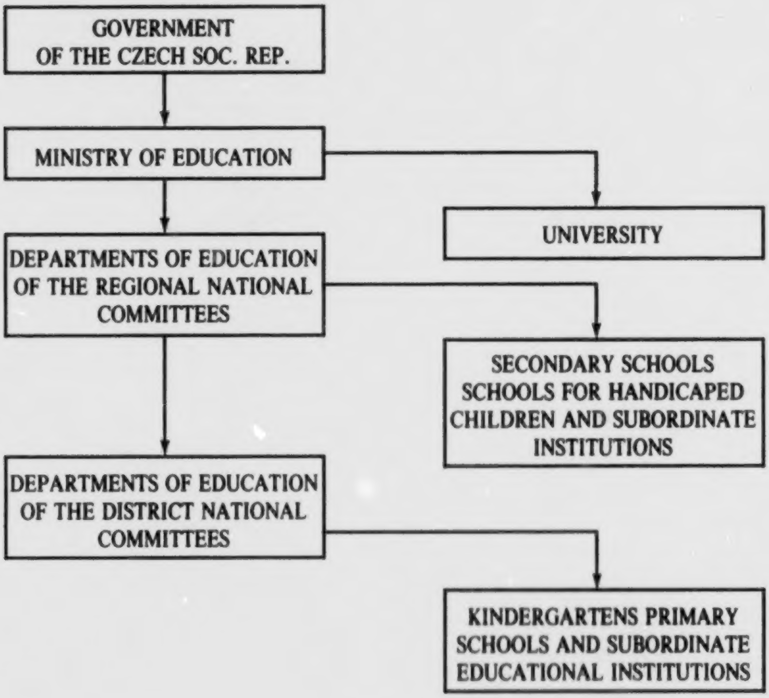
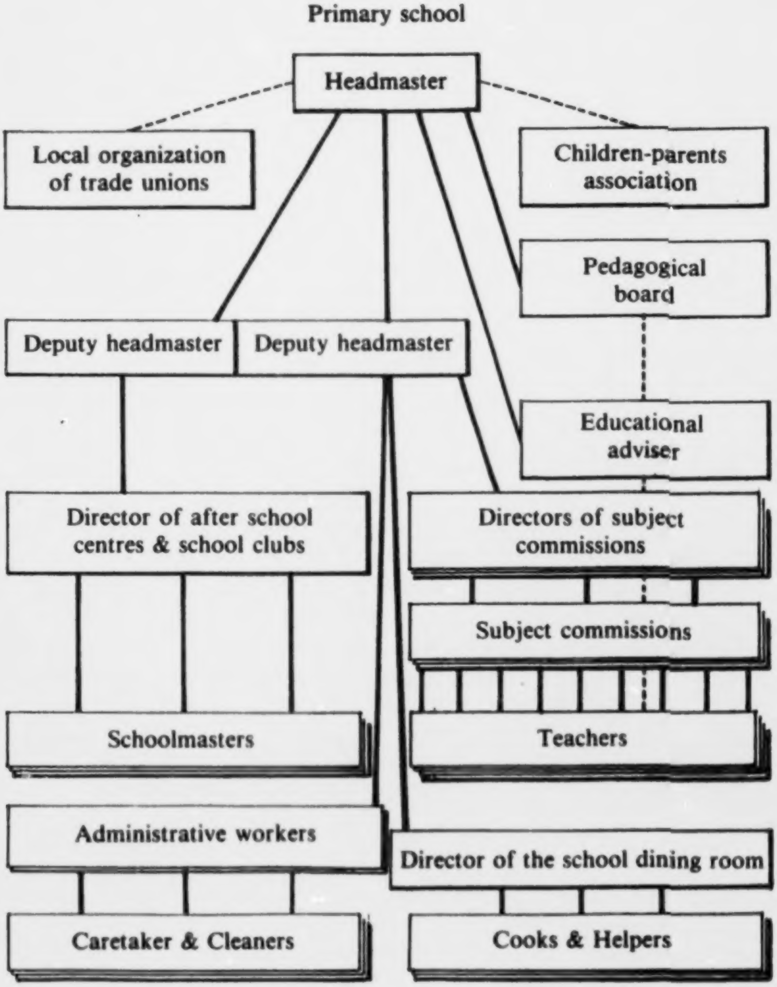

GOVERNMENT OF THE CZECH SOC. REP.
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY
DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION OF THE REGIONAL NATIONAL COMMITTEES
SECONDARY SCHOOLS SCHOOLS FOR HANDICAPED CHILDREN AND SUBORDINATE INSTITUTIONS
DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION OF THE DISTRICT NATIONAL COMMITTEES
KINDERGARTENS PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND SUBORDINATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Table 4: Primary schools


Primary school
Headmaster
Local organization of trade unions
Children-parents association
Pedagogical board
Deputy headmaster
Deputy headmaster
Educational adviser
Director of after school centres & school clubs
Directors of subject commissions
Subject commissions
Schoolmasters
Teachers
Administrative workers
Director of the school dining room
Caretaker & Cleaners
Cooks & Helpers

2. *Primary Education - 4 years from 6 to 10 years of age*

Primary school curriculum

		Class		
Subject of instruction	1	2	3	4
Native language and literature	9	9	9	9
Elementary teaching	2	2	—	—
National history and geography	—	—	1	2
Mathematics	4	5	5	5
Natural history	—	—	2	2
Music and singing	1	1	1	1
Arts and crafts	1	1	2	2
Writing	—	1	1	—
Work instruction	1	1	1	1
Physical training and sports	2	2	2	2
Total per week	20	22	24	24
Voluntary subjects (sport games)	1	1	1	1
Hobby groups (choir singing)	—	—	2	2

The school year begins on the lst of September of the current year and ends on the 31st of August of the following year. It is divided into the period of instruction and the period of holidays: Winter holidays: 2 weeks (usually from 20 December to 2 January); Spring holidays: 1 week in March or April (it depends on decision of District National Committee); Summer holidays: from 1 July to 31 August.

3. *Teaching Subjects in Primary School and their Character*

Mother Tongue and Literature

The aim of this subject is to teach pupils to express themselves in an intelligible and realistic way by means of both oral and written form of literary language and to teach them to read and understand fiction and scientific texts correctly.

The aim of the language text-analysing instruction is to develop pupils vocabulary, their oral expression, culture of speech (and sense for figurative expression), to teach pupils to read suitable texts in a correct, fluent, conscious and distinct way. The aims of literary education at elementary school are creating and developing pupils abilities to perceive, enjoy, understand and evaluate literary texts, forming and enhancing a system of pupils elmentary knowledge of literature and their reading and cultural habits. The core of stylistics lessons is to create coherent oral and written performances.

In classes 1 - 4 the level of pupils mastering the following educational objectives is evaluated:

1) Expressing in literary language
2) The skill to express ideas simply but coherently and clearly in short oral and written performances
3) Mastering elementary knowledge of the phonetic, morphological and syntactical structure of the language, of lexical meaning and word-formation
4) Mastering basic rules of orthography and applying them in writing

Elementary Teaching

It teaches children in classes 1 and 2 to observe things and processes in the nature and society, to study them by themselves, to be able to reveal easily understandable relations and to be ready to deal with simple, locally accessible products of nature and documents about social life. The aim is to teach pupils to name the easiest phenomena, to describe them and talk about them in a simple way. In class 1 pupils mostly observe changes in the way of life of people, animals and plants in the closest neighbourhood. In class 2 a more complex view of nature and society in a childs surroundings is formed. Pupils start to understand time relations in human activities.

National History

In classes 3 and 4 the following pupils abilities are evaluated: to which extent they are able to observe the countryside, to get orientated in it, to deal with the maps of the CSSR and to discuss some outstanding environmental objects and phenomena, to form relations between the observed phenomena. When studying a map the aim is to exploit the basic information. By means of some chracteristic regions to become familiar with the territory, nature, population, with basic topography. On a suitable level to observe the basic periods and milestones in the development of the common state of the Czeches and Slovaks and other inhabitants of both national republics, main features of the state and social system and, on an accessible level, also the manifestations of the political activity of the population. Basic knowledge of traffic regulations, correct behaviour in the street, at crossings etc. are also assessed.

Natural History

The aim of this subject is to sort out information about nature, gathered in out-of-school sphere and in other school subjects. In class 3 pupils learn to deduce relations between the observed phenomena. Such categories as volume, time, temperature and strength are compared, the qualities of materials are analysed, the mass of objects is measured. Pupils are taught to compare the qualities of the chosen products of nature. They are made familiar with the structure of the human body, with the basic activities of the main organs and they master the elementary principles of taking care of their health.

In class 4 pupils are given some basic information about magnet, magnetic field, strength and field of gravity, the Sun, the Moon, the planets and stars. They become familiar with some simple technical aids, they learn about electric energy, electric circuit. They learn about some chosen types of plants and animals and about adapting their bodies to the environment and the way of life. They are informed about some basic differences between man and other animals. Desirable attitudes towards the care of living conditions and towards the results of the work of the society are formed in this way.

Mathematics

During the instruction of mathematics in classes 1 - 4 it is observed how pupils:

1) have mastered the term natural number and numeric operation such as addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of natural numbers on the basis of knowledge related to the term set;

2) have learnt memory and written addition, subtraction and multiplication of natural numbers and written division by one digit divisor;

3) have got to know the qualities of numeric operations;

4) have got to know the term fraction;

5) have got to know the simplest elements of algebra, the term variable, expressions, solutions of simple equations and unequations by means of graphs, how the pupils are experienced in functional relations;

6) have got to know some simple charts and graphs and gained experience in using the charts when expressing mathematical relations;

7) have mastered illustratively the term of geometric figures in plane, how able they are to draw simple geometric figures (straight line, abscissa, triangle);

8) have learnt to count the perimeter of a figure and the area of a polygon;

9) have learnt to measure and round off the result of measurement to the unit of length given in advance;

10) have developed mathematical skills and abilities, thinking and space imagination.

Music and Singing

The aim of music and singing is to develop systematically pupils relation to singing, music and to create aesthetic taste. In classes 1 - 4 pupils in musical activities (singing, motion linked with music, listening to music) enjoy music actively and learn to understand it. They learn to sing suitable songs which have characteristic folklore features or which by their distinct musical adaptation enable pupils to learn about elementary features of the cultural character of their own people and other nations.

Arts and Crafts

At primary school it develops aesthetic activities of pupils and their knowledge of fine arts. We should mention especially the pupils artistic ability of performance, their artistic sensibility, receptivity, creative imagination and initial orientation in fine arts culture. In the forefront is the development of artistic creativity and artistic thinking. Part of the subject is also work with various materials, moulding, drawing according to a model.

Writing

In class 1 it is part of mother tongue lessons, in 2nd and 2rd classes it is an independent subject. The aim of writing is to teach pupils to write in Roman characters, to take care of correct skills and habits of writing, to make pupils familiar with basic demands for correct writing and thus to lay grounds for legible, adequately quick, original hand-writing and the basic lay-out written performances.

Working Instruction

At primary school working instruction is to lay grounds for basic working skills and habits for work with various materials and for growing activities. Pupils are taught to learn about manufactured materials and to use tools, machines and aids and at the same time to respect hygiene and safety at work. The polytechnical aspect, applying relations between individual school subjects and positive relations to work are stressed.

Physical Training and Sport Education

It is understood as an irreplaceable compensation means for all systematic educational and working activities. Especially the development of motoric abilities and positive moral and volitional qualities of pupils, gaining sense for effective and aestethic motion, mastering an appropriate knowledge needed for life, work, defence and sport realization in the society are closely observed. Pupils are also educated to keep discipline in trafic, to master traffic regulations and to become familiar with traffic signs.

4. Training of Teachers and Headmasters

Teachers of the 1st level of primary schools (age group 6-10 years) are trained at Colleges of Education either in internal or extra-mural forms of studies. Graduation from this form of study qualifies them for the teaching profession in grades 1 - 4 of primary schools. The general aim of teachers training is to establish a dynamic open system which will enable the teachers, in the course of permanent education, to meet the growing demands of development and to complete and extend their professional qualifications in accordance with the present-day general laws and trends in the development of all other professions.

The training of teachers is carried out according to uniform curricula and syllabi. It is, however, within the responsibility of the College's administration to modify the allotment of lectures by as much as 30 per cent. Some colleges are currently testing additional specializations, e.g. in physical education, aesthetic education and manual training. The programme of further development in qualifications is closely linked with the preceding course of study and is implemented within a country-wide uniform system of permanent education. It has the following stages:

The first stage follows immediately after graduation and is compulsory. Its purpose is to introduce the beginning teacher or pedagogue to the pedagogical and educational processes in schools. It is implemented according to an individual work-plan and lasts one year. It is concluded by a complex attestation.

The school's headmaster, his deputy and the introducing teacher or pedagogue are the principal factors in the introduction of a young pedagogue into actual school work.

The second stage of further education usually has an innovative function. It is intended for all teachers having a university education who perform it as postgraduate study and for all teachers having a secondary education as post-GCE study. It is usually implemented as a two-year study course for teachers teaching at schools. The second stage of further education is compulsory and it is a condition for advancement in salary.

The third stage of further education is voluntary and has a specializational function. Teachers may choose one of the forms of specializational or functional studies offered by central institutes for the education of pedagogues, by regional pedagogical institutes and by universities or other institutions approved by the Ministries of Education. They concentrate on the preparation of pedagogical specialists, methodologists for regional pedagogical institutes and district centres, etc. They take the form of individual study while performing the teaching profession.

Various other forms of continuous education will be implemented through the central institutes for the education of pedagogues, by regional pedagogical institutes and by district pedagogical centres, subject committees and methodological associations in schools and by other specialized and scientific institutions. Heads of schools and other leading educators are prepared in a cyclical programme of postgraduate education on uniform principles which is for them compulsory.

5. New Curricula in Primary Education

New experimental curricula were prepared by a group of specialists from the Research Pedagogical Institute (it represents a resort institute of the Ministry of Education).

This experiment was observed and evaluated not only by these specialists but also by involved teachers and the specialised pedagogical press. Controlling activity during this experiment was performed by district and regional methodologists and by district and regional inspectors. After four year experimental period a thorough evaluation was completed.

The conception of the four-year lower degree of the primary school was tested experimentally in 1971 - 1976 among the vast sample of more than 150 schools in almost all districts in the CSSR.

All organizational changes and changes in contents which are being gradually implemented in the Czechoslovak school system are very carefully prepared in advance, evaluated in experiments, systematically observed and critically approved. The school curricula are very carefully prepared by a team composed of workers in scientific research institutes, universities and educational establishments. These curricula and the textbooks accompanying them are studied in experiments. Their efficiency is observed and evaluated from the following points of view:

— whether the requirements of the curricula and of the textbooks enable the set aims and tasks to be fulfilled in relation to age and ability,

— how their contents are reflected in the quality of the pupils development of personality,

— what the personal and material requirements are for their implementation,

— how they influence the change of character in teachers,

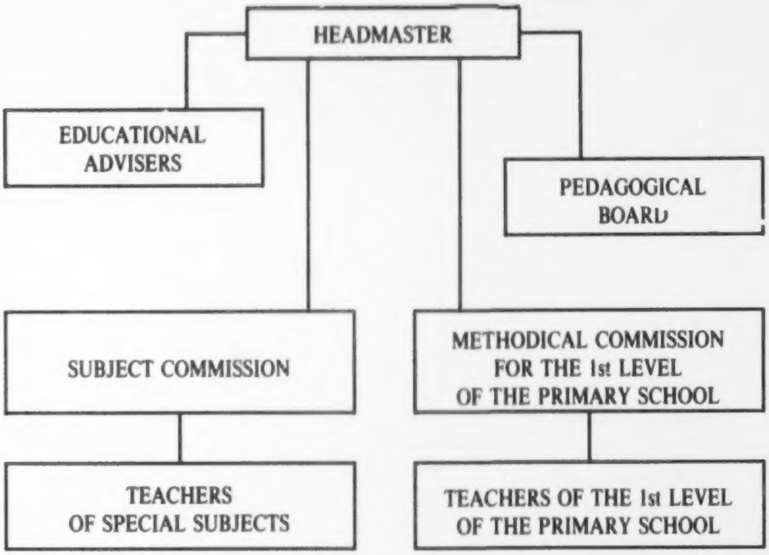
— what the level of the administration of schools by departments of education and by the schools direction is,

— how the concept has been accepted and approved by parents and the public.

Methods and Means of Checking the Effectiveness of Curricula

— results of pedagogical observations,
— results of pupils control papers,
— evaluation of questionnaires for headmasters and school teachers,
— partial reports during the observation of individual grades,
— results of control and inspection activities,
— studies of individual problems,
— reactions and opinions of the public.

Table 5: Curriculum evaluation within the individual school


HEADMASTER
EDUCATIONAL ADVISERS
PEDAGOGICAL BOARD
SUBJECT COMMISSION
METHODICAL COMMISSION FOR THE 1st LEVEL OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL
TEACHERS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS
TEACHERS OF THE 1st LEVEL OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

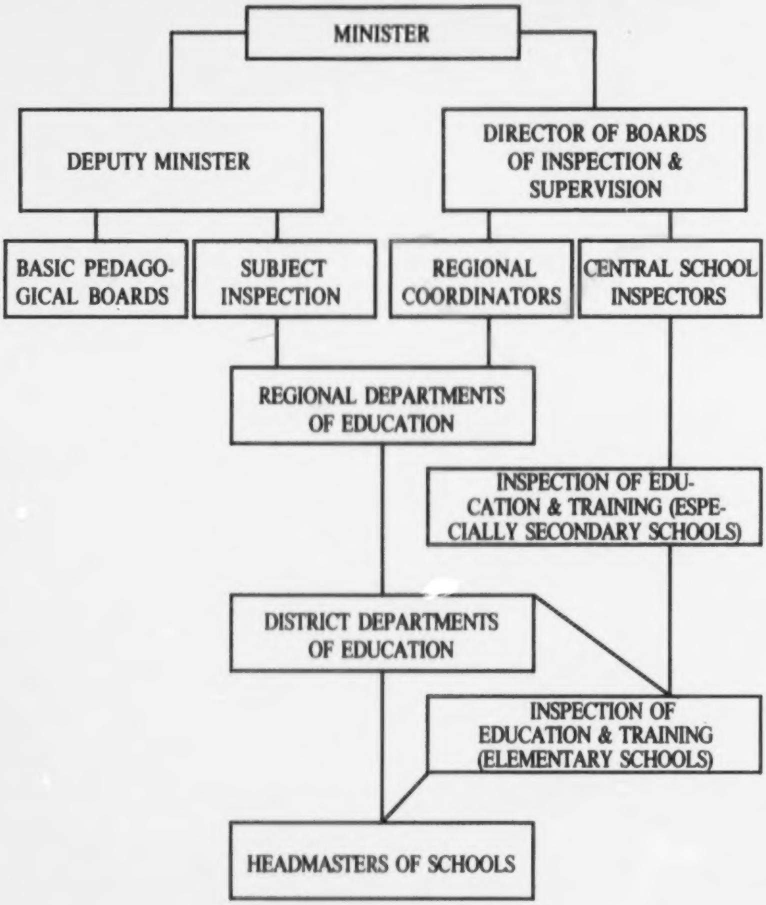
The Testing and Introduction of Curricula:

During stage I: certain partial investigations are made in a limited sample of schools (5 - 10).

During stage II: experimental testing is carried out in approximately 150 schools. The subjects of testing are the overall conception, the educational plan, the syllabi, the textbooks and educational material. Further teachers are gradually being prepared for work with new didactic material. The results of educational and instructional activities are evalutated every year in partial analyses and at the end of a four year period a complex analysis is made of the effectiveness of the new conception of education and instruction in primary schools.

During stage III: revised curricula and textbooks are gradually introduced beginning with grade one of all primary schools. A sample of 500 schools in different conditions (schools in big cities, small schools and schools with combined grades) were observed in order to assess effectiveness. The results are given in partial reports. After a further four year period a complex analysis is again made of the effectiveness of the educational and instructional work in implementing the new curricula and textbooks.

Table 6: Evaluation agencies for education and training in the CSR


MINISTER
DEPUTY MINISTER
DIRECTOR OF BOARDS OF INSPECTION & SUPERVISION
BASIC PEDAGOGICAL BOARDS
SUBJECT INSPECTION
REGIONAL COORDINATORS
CENTRAL SCHOOL INSPECTORS
REGIONAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION
INSPECTION OF EDUCATION & TRAINING (ESPECIALLY SECONDARY SCHOOLS)
DISTRICT DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION
INSPECTION OF EDUCATION & TRAINING (ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS)
HEADMASTERS OF SCHOOLS

The main points of discussions concerned the following problems:

1. the suitability of the aims and contents of education and instruction as expressed in the syllabi of individual subjects,
2. the suitability of the treatment of the subject matter in textbooks,
3. the functionality and inspirational value of methodological handbooks,
4. the fulfilment of material and personal conditions for the effectiveness of the new conception,
5. the effectivity and the quality of the results of educational and instructional activities.

GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC

Manfred Ehringer *Director*
Staatliches Schulamt Stuttgart, FRG

1. Basic information

a) Fundamentals

According to the Federal German Constitution the entire school system, including private schools, is under state supervision. School matters are mainly the responsibility of the federal states (Bundesländer), which is why the systems vary across the country. The necessary coordination is provided by joint agreements concluded by the Länder and for deliberation of issues of common concern a Permanent Conference of Länder Ministers of Education is regularly convened. A federal-state commission works towards coordinated education planning and research promotion.

School attendance is compulsory from the ages of six to 18, i.e. for 12 years, during which fulltime attendance is required for nine years and part-time attendance at vocational school thereafter. In some Länder there is already a 10th compulsory year. Attendance at all puplic schools is free. Study materials, in particular school books, are also put at the pupils' disposal partly free of charge.

The Federal German Constitution requires religious instruction to be a regular subject. From the age of 14 any pupil can decide whether or not to continue to take part in it. Most states have "interdenominational schools oriented to Christian principles", that is schools based on Christian culture in which only religious instruction is given in separate denominational classes. As a rule girls and boys are in mixed classes; in older classes sport is taken separately.

b) The school system

At the age of six children enter primary school (Grundschule). In general it lasts four years, in Berlin (West) six years. All children attend primary school together. Thereafter their ways separate as they choose several possibilities.

Nowadays, however, many pupils first go into orientation grades (classes 5 and 6), leaving their options open for a later choice. Most children — just under half of this age group — subsequently attend a short-course secondary school (Hauptschule).

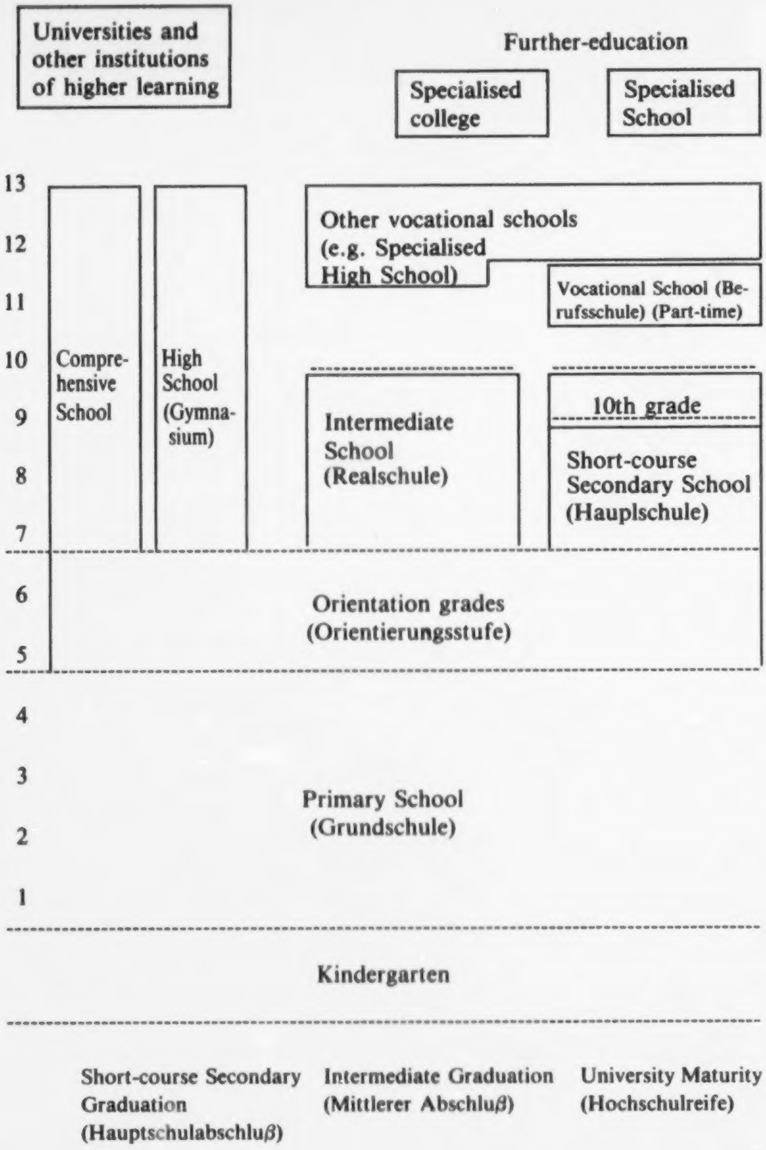
Schools providing general education

	1966		1984	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
School kindergartens and prep classes	623	12,300	3,001	58,100
Primary and short-course secondary	29,217	5,710,900	18,276	4,006,400
Special (for handicapped)	1,614	198,800	2,784	284,600
Intermediate	1,660	590,000	2,627	1,132,200
Senior high	1,968	1,038,100	2,483	1,851,200
Comprehensive	—	—	301	220,100
Evening	269	16,700	262	41,500
Total	35,351	7,566,800	29,734	7,594,100
Teachers		255,500		501,300

Most who leave school at the age of 15 go into vocational training (attending part-time vocational school until the age of 18). Successful graduation from Hauptschule opens the way to many occupations for which formal training is required. The range of subjects taught at Hauptschule has been substantially improved on what it used to be. For example, nowadays almost every pupil is instructed in a foreign language, mostly English, and gets vocational orientation to ease the transition after leaving school. Intermediate School (Realschule) as a rule takes six years, from fifth to 10th grades. Realschule leads to a graduating certificate at intermediate level between Hauptschule and Senior High School (Gymnasium). The intermediate certificate qualifies children for attendance at a technical school (Fachschule or Fachoberschule), specialised schools offering vocational training at upper secondary level. The intermediate graduation is also regarded as a prerequisite for a medium-level career in business and administration and in general improves the young person's starting chances in employment. A third of all pupils attain intermediate graduation.

The nine-year Gymnasium (5th to 13th school years) is the traditional grammar or senior high school in Germany. The former classification into ancient language, modern language and natural sciences Gymnasium has become very rare nowadays. Today the socalled "Reformed upper phase" (11th to 13th years) is the rule in which a course system has replaced the

Schematic depiction of the education system


Universities and other institutions of higher learning
Further-education
Specialised college
Specialised School
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
Other vocational schools (e.g. Specialised High School)
Vocational School (Berufsschule) (Part-time)
Comprehensive School
High School (Gymnasium)
Intermediate School (Realschule)
10th grade
Short-course Secondary School (Hauplschule)
Orientation grades (Orientierungsstufe)
Primary School (Grundschule)
Kindergarten
Short-course Secondary Graduation (Hauptschulabschluβ)
Intermediate Graduation (Mittlerer Abschluβ)
University Maturity (Hochschulreife)

conventional classes. In the courses the students concentrate on the subjects they are most interested in. This is to ease the transition to university. In addition to the Gymnasium with the reformed upper phase there are special forms such as business Gymnasium or technical Gymnasium.

Graduation from the Gymnasium, the so-called "maturity certificate" ("Reifezeugnis") or "Abitur" entitles young people to study at university. However, the number of Gymnasium graduates has increased so greatly — from 50.000 in 1965 to almost 310.000 in 1984 — that not all those who wish to study can get university places. Certain restrictions have had to be introduced.

2. *Present educational philosophy*

a) Reform

A new educational philosophy was discussed as a whole in connection with a change of consciouness in society and finally introduced from 1975 onward. Roughly about 1982 new curricula have been introduced in primary education. The reform of the 80-ties is a reform of the late 60-ties. Due to the so-called "Sputnik-Shock" and the fact that educational thinking was based to a great extent on behaviouristic theories (e.g. Skinner), intellectual and scientific oriented curricula (new maths, natural sciences) became very dominant. Thinking was geared one-sidedly by political issues:

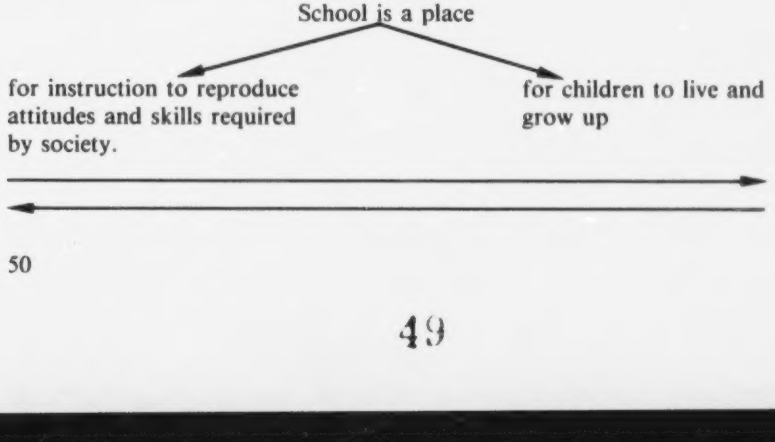
— School was to bring forward more students with a higher education to keep up with the technological and economic development going on in other countries.

— If behaviouristic theories were right then this could only be garanteed by education: the school environment and form and content of instruction had to be organised to serve these aims.

This was done one-sidedly and thus neglected the demands of children as one soon found out.

Today one believes that a child has a right to be a child. That means that educational philosophy is devoted more to helping the child to have varied experience — environmentally, emotionally and socially — to develop all its potentials and not only its intellectual and scholastic skills.

School today is a place of instruction as well as a place for children to grow up, a place where they can build up a positive concept of themselves.



School is a place

for instruction to reproduce attitudes and skills required by society.

for children to live and grow up

b) Instruction

Subjects/periods

— The pupils can choose additional activities (average 2 periods) according to their own interests such as arts, music, sports, drama.

— Special programs are for pupils with temporary scholastic or behavioural difficulties.

— The curricula are designed in such a way that in connection with a described content certain general as well a subject aims are to be realised.

Syllabus part 2: day to day life

Buying, Selling ad Advertising.

Looking at the shopping facilities in his local community, the pupil tries to discover simple correlations between goods on offer an their purchase. Through experience and observation while shopping the pupil notices various attitudes and reactions. He then can draw own conclusions about how to react best.

In our local community, there are a number of different shopping facilities.	Retailers, specialist-shop, supermarket.
There is a greater variety of goods on offer compared to former times.	Legal aspect of buying and selling.
Many goods come from abroad. It takes a lot of experience to be a good shopper.	Swap-trade, history of money, field trip, assortment, arrangement, consumer attitudes (sell-by-date, comparsion of prices), special offers, shopping list.
Purchase and sales of goods are influenced by advertising.	Advertising media, methods of advertising, information, arousing needs, — Maths: weights and measures — Religion: living with wishes — Crafts: looking at and judging your own work — Arts: game.

Timetable of the Grundschule in Baden-Württemberg

	March 12, 1984, K.u.U.S. 97/1984			
Teaching subject[1]	**Class**			
	1	2	3	4
Religion[2]	2	2	2	
German Language	6	6	7	7
Geography	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	4	5	5	5
Arts/Textile work[3]	1	2	3	3
Music	1	1	1	1
Sports[4]	3	3	3	3
	20	22	24	24
Counselling and guidance	2	2	2	

[1] The proportion of the individual teaching subjects in the total teaching time can be increased or decreased according to their importance and to their relationship with larger teaching projects. The proportion of the individual subjects must, however, be maintained throughout the school year as a whole.

[2] Two hours of religion teaching are given by the term of the agreement with the religious authorities.

[3] The subject "Textile work" is to be taught in a co-education form. In the classes 3 and 4 the teacher decides the time allocation for both subjects, for instance two hours for the one and two for the other every week.

[4] In those classes in which it is not possible to run the third hour of "Sports", this hour must be used for Musik or for Arts.

— The approach is a dominant phenomenological one even though the teacher relates his instruction to the structure of the individual subjects.
— Self-organised doing and learning — by oneself and with others — is a core issue.

3. Curriculum evaluation agencies

a) Central agencies

The central guidelines in which the legal aims of education are put down are

— the constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany (Grundgesetz) and
— the State Law (Landesverfassung) of each state.

On this legal basis each state designs its own curriculum in coordination with the other states. There exists a consensus in many fields, even though there are state-specific educational profiles and regulations.

The curriculum guidelines are drawn up under the authority of the Ministry of Education. Various groups and bodies participate such as:

— subject teachers
— members of parents committees,
— members of teacher colleges and universities,
— members of the school authority
— members of educational institutions.

The implementation is garanteed

— by in-service training,
— by text-books that need the approval of the Ministry of Education,
— by the moderating work offered to schools by the regional and local school authorities,
— by centrally provided tests for orientation or in connection with final examinations.

Efforts to raise the standards of teaching or to signal that parts of the curriculum have to be revised are also initiated by the bodies mentioned above.

b) Intermediate agencies

Apart from their administrative task the regional and local school boards have to offer pedagogical expertise to the schools and support the individual teacher in his daily work. School boards are agencies to provide educational didactical and methodological service to the schools. School inspectors are foremost educationalists and not administrators. They all have a fair amount of teaching experience before they are appointed.

c) Curriculum evaluation within the individual school

It is up to the teacher to make decisions of how to proceed to organize his or her teaching according to the centrally provided curriculum. The subject teachers decide on the textbooks. They cooperate very closely on class level, exchange tests and compare results. The tests are mainly informal ones and they are correlated to the curriculum and to the achievements of the class. There are central regulations governing the minimum number of tests which have to be written for each subject and at each class level.

4. *Curriculum evaluation methods, instruments, procedure*

The assessment of the quality of curriculum implementation in the field of actual teaching is mainly done by observation of lessons through experts. The head of the individual school is directly responsible for garanteeing the enforcement of the general regulations as well as the intended quality of teaching. This makes it necessary for heads to see their staff regularly in the classroom. On top of that, the directors of education make similar assessments regularly.

Both the heads and the directors are considered as experts. Again and again they are asked to report on current issues to the Ministry of Education and offer their expertise for decision-making in doing so.

In connection with current educational experimental programmes the evaluation is done by applying additional empiric methods. These assessments are usually carried out by universities or educational institutes.

GREECE

Michael Vamvoucas — University of Crete, Greece
George Mavroidis — Ministry of Education, Athens, Greece

1. *Introduction*

Current laws stipulate that the Greek educational system be organised as follows: preschool education, primary education, secondary education and higher education.

1.1 Primary education.

Pre-secondary education is provided by nursery schools (nipiagogia) for two years and in primary schools (demotiko) for six years.

Although nursery school is not compulsory, most children between $3\,{}^{1}/_{2}$ and $5\,{}^{1}/_{2}$ attend it. The six years of primary school are compulsory. If children have reached $5\,{}^{1}/_{2}$ by 1st October, they start attending in that school year.

1.2 Secondary education.

This is provided by lower secondary schools (1st cycle) and by upper secondary schools which are self-managing and have their own teaching staff. There are technical and vocational upper secondary schools as well as all-purpose upper secondary schools. Technical and vocational schools also offer the second cycle, which lasts two years.

Compulsory schooling lasts nine years. Primary and lower secondary school attendance are compulsory for pupils under sixteen years of age.

Lower secondary schools provide a common core of general education, whereas upper secondary schools may be general, classical, technical and vocational or all-purpose.

Although primary school pupils move from one year of studies (class) to the next automatically, at secondary school this depends on their progress. In lower secondary school, progress is measured by the marks obtained over the three terms in the school year, whereas in upper secondary school end-of-year written exam marks are taken into consideration as well as termly assessments. Pupils go automatically from primary school to lower secondary school, and from there to upper secondary school (without having to take an exam).

1.3. Higher education.

This is provided by universities and other institutes of higher education, where courses last between four and six years depending on the subject, and on Institutes of Technology (T.E.I.) which are geared towards applied research and the teaching of technology, in contrast with the universities, which are more concerned with fostering and carrying out basic research and with general and theoretical education.

Since the 1984-85 academic year, departments of primary and/or preschool education have operated within the universities. They see to the initial training of teachers for primary schools and for nursery schools, respectively.

Admission to higher education depends on performance in national entrance exams. Each institute or university department has a limited number of places to offer.

There are also Post-secondary Preparation Centres (M.P.K.), whose role is to make private cramming schools (Frondistiria) for university admission become redundant.

Tables 1 and 2 below show the current structure of the Greek educational system and how it functions.

2. *Primary education*

2.1 Primary school comprises six classes, each of which lasts one year. The goals of primary education are:

— To help pupils develop active relationships with the things, situations and phenomena that they study.

— To help pupils acquire basic notions and gradually to gain the ability to go beyond sensory impressions to the realm of abstract thought.

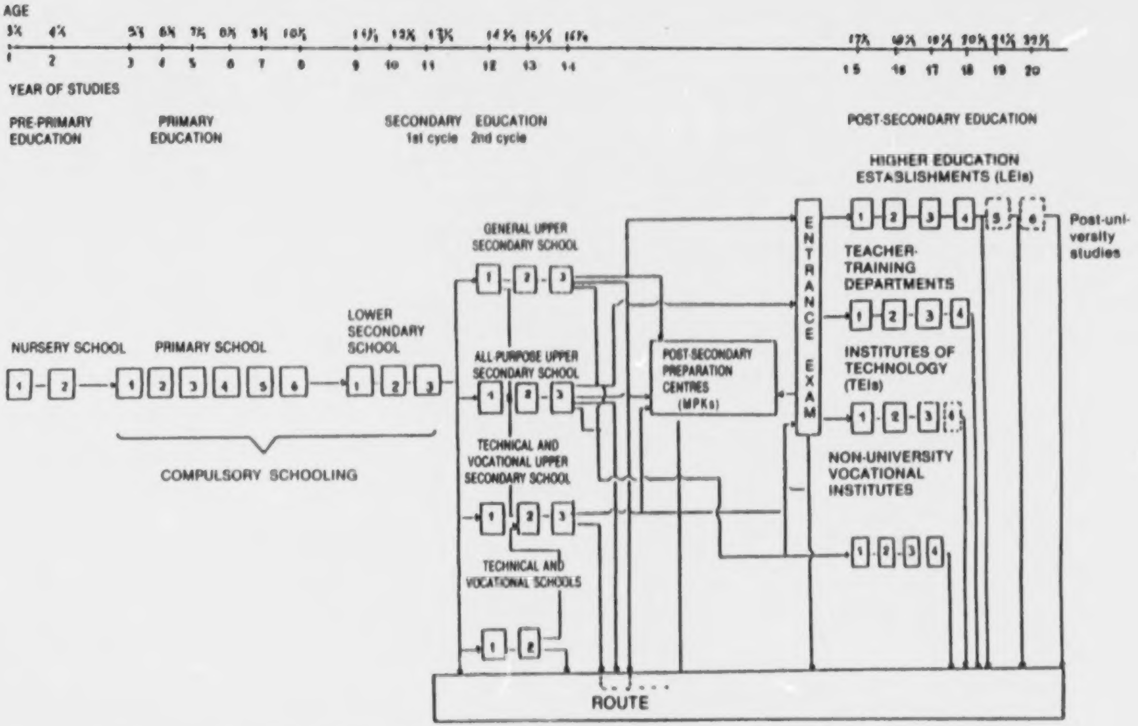
— To help pupils acquire the ability to use both oral language and written language correctly.

— To help pupils gradually to become familiar with moral, religious, national, humanitarian and other values, and to organise them into a value system.

— To help pupils cultivate an aesthetic sense, so that they become able to judge works of art and to express themselves in a similar fashion through artistic creations of their own.

2.2 Teaching staff.

The teaching staff's principal duty is to teach for a certain number of hours per week. School Heads have a weekly timetable of 20 to 24 hours, Tab. 1: Current structure of the Greek educational system


AGE
3½ 4½ 5½ 6½ 7½ 8½ 9½ 10½ 11½ 12½ 13½ 14½ 15½ 16½ 17½ 18½ 19½ 20½ 21½ 22½
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
YEAR OF STUDIES
PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION
PRIMARY EDUCATION
SECONDARY EDUCATION
1st cycle
2nd cycle
POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION
HIGHER EDUCATION ESTABLISHMENTS (LEIs)
Post-university studies
TEACHER-TRAINING DEPARTMENTS
INSTITUTES OF TECHNOLOGY (TEIs)
NON-UNIVERSITY VOCATIONAL INSTITUTES
ENTRANCE EXAM
GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL
ALL-PURPOSE UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL
TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOL
TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS
POST-SECONDARY PREPARATION CENTRES (MPKs)
NURSERY SCHOOL
PRIMARY SCHOOL
LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL
COMPULSORY SCHOOLING
ROUTE

Source: European Communities Commission, Eurydice Unit, le Système d'enseignement grec, Brussels, 1986 (with certain modifications)

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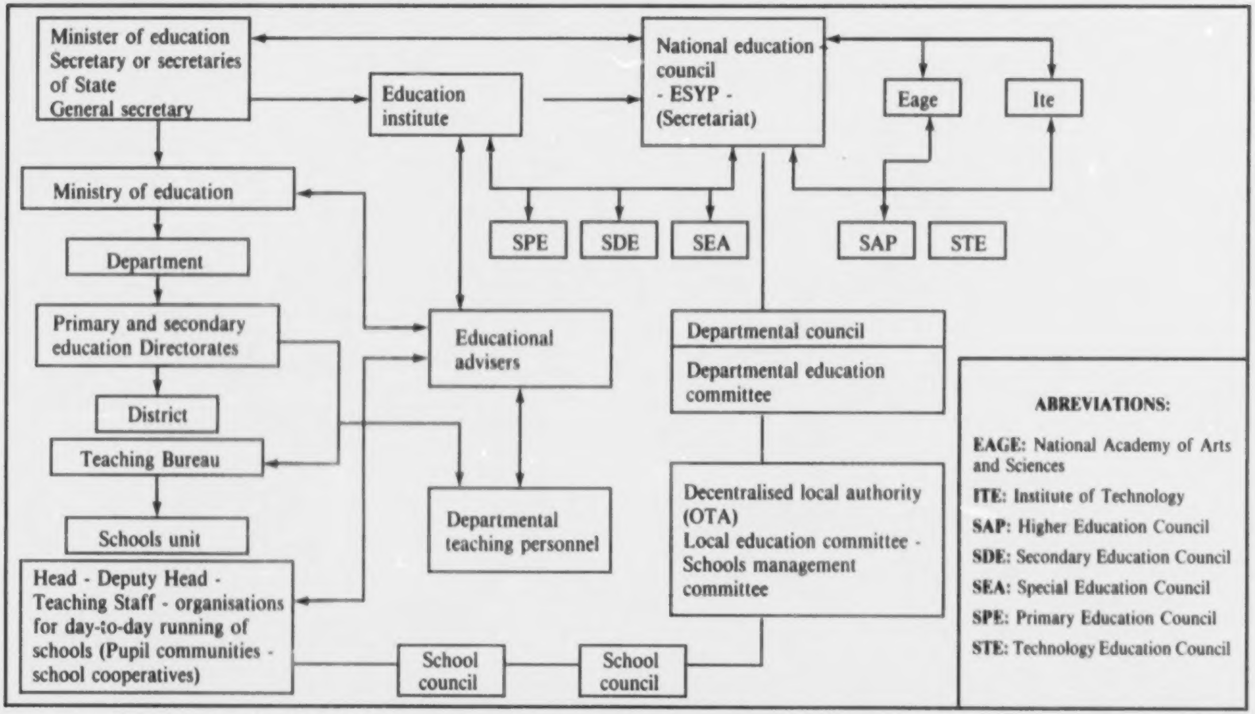
Tab. 2: How the Greek educational system functions


Minister of education
Secretary or secretaries of State
General secretary
Education institute
National education council
- ESYP -
(Secretariat)
Eage
Ite
Ministry of education
SPE
SDE
SEA
SAP
STE
Department
Primary and secondary education Directorates
Educational advisers
Departmental council
Departmental education committee
District
Teaching Bureau
Schools unit
Departmental teaching personnel
Decentralised local authority (OTA)
Local education committee -
Schools management committee
Head - Deputy Head - Teaching Staff - organisations for day-to-day running of schools (Pupil communities - school cooperatives)
School council
School council
ABREVIATIONS:
EAGE: National Academy of Arts and Sciences
ITE: Institute of Technology
SAP: Higher Education Council
SDE: Secondary Education Council
SEA: Special Education Council
SPE: Primary Education Council
STE: Technology Education Council

Source: Introduction to Law No. 1566/1985: *Structure and functioning of primary and secondary education and other ordinances*, Athens, 1985.

and teachers have from 25 to 30 hours. Giving lessons is not teachers' only task, however: they also have to be on hand for at least 30 hours per week for other activities associated with their educational duties (taking part in school life, contacts with parents, organising cultural activities, sports, etc.).

Primary school Heads are recruited from among teachers with at least ten years' service. They remain in the post for no longer than four years.

8381 primary schools were open in the 1987-88 school year. The number of active primary teachers was as follows:

* Single-class schools	2898
* Schools with two classes	1620
* Schools with three classes	847
* Schools with four classes	310
* Schools with five classes	151
* Schools with six classes	885
* Schools with seven classes	163
* Schools with eight classes	156
* Schools with nine classes	133
* Schools with ten classes	124
* Schools with eleven classes	31
* Schools with twelve classes	968
* Schools with over twelve classes	95
Total	8381

* Source: Ministry of National Education

Heads of schools with six classes or more teach 20 hours per week. Heads of schools with four or five classes teach 24 hours per week. Heads of other types of primary school, like the teaching staff, teach from 25 to 30 hours per week.

2.3 Primary school teaching staff are divided among a three-level hierarchy. Freshly-appointed teachers come in at grade C, which corresponds to the 16th bracket on the salary scale (about 60,000 drachmas or £ 230 per month for those without dependants). After two years' service, teachers move up to grade B, and then to grade A after six years.

The school year begins on 1st September and ends on 31st August. The teaching year begins on 1st September and ends on 20th June. Courses begin on 11th September and end on 10th June.

2.4 Initial training and in-service training for primary teachers.

Primary school teachers are trained for four years at university Education Departments. Once they have obtained their diploma, prospective teachers are entered on a register in order of merit (year of graduation and overall diploma mark). They may be offered a vacant post anywhere in Greece, which they have the right to accept or to refuse. If they refuse, they lose their position on the register. They are assessed by teaching advisers and by the primary education bureau. Their salaries, as with teachers in general, are hardly enticing.

In-service training takes place in training schools known as "Primary teacher refresher schools" (SELPEs). There are ten of these, located in the country's major cities. They provide one-year courses and intensive courses. Admission is by lottery.

2.5 The subjects taught and the number of hours per week for which they are taught are shown in Table 3, below;. Table 4 shows the various levels of the administrative structures which govern primary education and primary teachers.

Table 3: Number of hours per week

	Classes					
Subjects taught	A	B	C	D	E	ST
1. Religion	—	—	2	2	2	2
2. Mother tongue	9	9	9	9	8	8
3. Mathematics	4	4	3	3	4	4
4. History	—	—	2	2	2	2
5. Environmental studies (inc. religion for classes A and B)	4	4	3	3	—	—
6. Geography	—	—	—	—	1	1
7. Natural science	—	—	—	—	3	3
8. Social and civic education	—	—	—	—	1	1
9. Aesthetic education	4	4	4	4	2	2
10. Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2
11. Modern language (English. or French)	—	—	—	3	3	3
Total hours per week	23	23	25	28	28	28

3. *The new primary education curricula*

The new primary education curricula came into effect under Presidential decree no. 583/1982. The curricula for the ist and 2nd classes (years) of primary school were applied from the 1982/83 school year onwards. The next four years, up to 1986, saw the implemention of the new curricula for the remaining four classes of primary education.

The goals and objectives of the new curricula are laid down as follows:

The primary education curricula are a means by which to achieve the following, in an atmosphere of freedom and inquiry:

3.1 Gradually to familiarise pupils with moral, religious, national, socio-economic, political, aesthetic and other values.

More specifically, to help pupils acquire the following aptitudes and skills:

— Receptivity and sensitivity towards concrete situations expressing the values listed above.

— Adoption of those values and the expression of personal satisfaction.

— Free acceptance of those values, and their use as criteria and norms for pupils' activity and behaviour in the social and cultural environment in which they live.

— The inter-relating of those values, and their organisation into a system that constitutes a code of behaviour and a basic philosophy of life.

3.2 Gradually to introduce pupils to the cognitive sphere.

More specifically, the aim is to help them acquire:

— Basic items of information and elementary knowledge concerning objects and empirically verifiable facts.

— Fundamental notions concerning groups of objects, phenomena and apparent facts.

— Abstract concepts, appropriate to the stage of development of the pupils' intellectual aptitudes, concerning relationships, rules, laws and principles.

— Basic aptitudes, skills, methods and techniques which underlie the analytical, synthesising and evaluative processes that are indispensable for the gathering, processing, organising and fruitful use of the different elements of cognition.

— Furthermore, to cultivate in pupils the desire to acquire knowledge for themselves, a critical spirit, and creative intellectual activity in keeping with their level of maturity and intelligence.

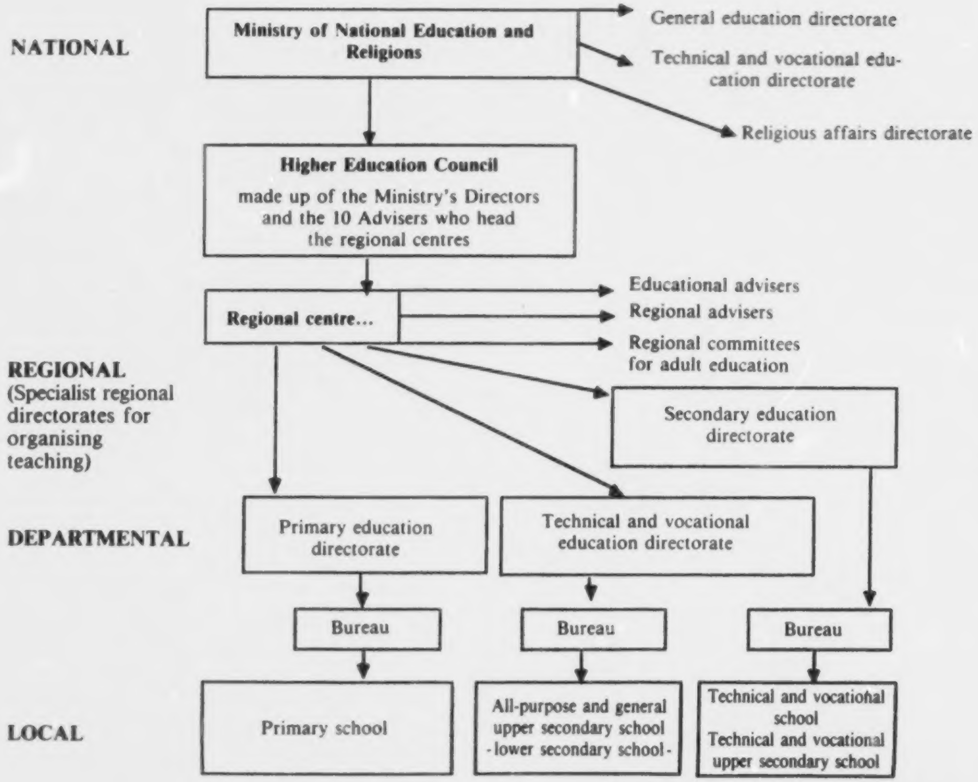
3.3 The progressive socialisation of the pupil.

More specifically, the aim is to help pupils to:

— Understand themselves and their place in the social environment.

— Understand other people belonging to different national, religious, so-

Administrative organisation


NATIONAL
Ministry of National Education and Religions
General education directorate
Technical and vocational education directorate
Religious affairs directorate
Higher Education Council
made up of the Ministry's Directors and the 10 Advisers who head the regional centres
Regional centre...
Educational advisers
Regional advisers
Regional committees for adult education
REGIONAL (Specialist regional directorates for organising teaching)
Secondary education directorate
DEPARTMENTAL
Primary education directorate
Technical and vocational education directorate
Bureau
Bureau
Bureau
LOCAL
Primary school
All-purpose and general upper secondary school -lower secondary school-
Technical and vocational school
Technical and vocational upper secondary school

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

cial and cultural groups as thoroughly as possible, accept, tolerate and appreciate them, so as to facilitate communication and cooperation.

— Undertand the conditions, acquire the skills and develop the psychomotor processes that are necessary for health and normal physical development.

— Acquire knowledge, habits and attitudes that contribute to their social and civil development, so that they may become citizens with a free spirit and a respect for the democratic institutions of the state.

— Acquire knowledge and rules of behaviour that contribute towards the protection, conservation and improvement of the environment.

— Understand the rapid transformations of a complex world, and the unforeseeable requirements for survival and self-fulfiment. Understand, too, the obligation to continually expand one's knowledge and to develop one's aptitudes and skills throughout life.

4. Curriculum evaluation agencies

Curricula are assessed at three levels: at the level of class and school, at that of school district, and at national level. Those responsible for assessment are the teacher and the school Head, the district educational adviser, and the Education Institute, respectively.

After each unit or topic set for a given subject has been taught, the teacher gives the pupils a test to see how far the teaching objectives have been reached. Between 8 and 12 similar assessments for each subject taught at primary school are expected to be made during the school year.

On the basis of visits to the classes in his/her district, and the observations and the information gathered from discussions with teachers, the educational adviser takes note of the difficulties in assimilating the items of knowledge and the notions contained in the curricula. The adviser's opinions are then forwarded to the Education Institute, which is responsible for the implementation and modification of curricula, as well as for producing school textbooks.

4.1 The Education Institute is an autonomous public service which comes directly under the Ministry of National Education. Its role is that of a consultative body intended to help the Ministry in decision-making.

More specifically, the Education Institute should:

— Undertake educational research and study issues relating to primary and secondary education.

— Formulate and present proposals designed both to alter existing guidelines and to conceive and plan education policy with a view to achieving teaching objectives.

— Keep up with the evolution of educational technology, study its use and monitor the results of its application.

— Lastly, plan in-service teacher-training programmes, and follow them through.

It is also responsible for preparing and publishing school textbooks and the works known as the "primary teacher's book" and the "secondary teacher's book", which contain instructions for teaching with particular textbooks used in primary and secondary education.

4.2 The educational adviser supervises actual teaching within a school district. Administrative supervision is entrusted to the appropriate person at the District Education Directorate or Bureau. Educational advisers have taken over one of the two roles of inspectors; they are recruited on the basis of merit, as determined by their training, their skills, their experience and their personality. They carry out their duties for a minimum of four years and a maximum of 12 years. More precisely, educational advisers:

— Visit the district's schools and provide guidance for teachers through theoretical suggestions and, more especially, through practical suggestions about teaching methods. They thereby help to improve teaching and learning conditions.

— Work with school teaching staff to handle teaching problems, trying to bring recent results in educational science to bear upon teaching.

— Work with school teaching staff in their district to plan school work and to implement education policy.

— Organise seminars for teachers, and see that teachers are kept up to date.

— Work with the services, groups and bodies concerned (school Heads, teaching staff, parent and pupil committees, local bodies) to improve schools and the education they provide.

— Finally, take part in teacher assessment.

5. Research and experiment

Curriculum assessment is sometimes carried out by the Educational Research Centres which have been set up within university Education Departments in the last few years.

Research teams design studies to assess the curricula for different school subjects. They forward their research plans to the Ministry of National Education. If they are approved by the Education Institute and if the Ministry allocates the necessary funds, which is often not the case, then the curriculum assessment study can be carried out in accordance with the set plan.

In certain cases, the Ministry of National Education asks the university Educational Research Centres to assess curricula that have been in force for some time.

In either case, the researchers design their own instruments for gathering the information with which to assess the chosen sector of the curriculum. They frequently make use of classroom observation grids, knowledge and aptitude tests, and quetionnaires for teachers, school Heads, college professors, parents of pupils, and educational advisers.

At times, the implementation of new curricula is the beginning of a long process in which the initial plan is gradually modified in the light of experience. Assessment is experienced at three levels: pupils, staff and educational advisers. This is the case, for instance, with the current introduction of a foreign language (English of French) from the fourth year of schooling, including validating the respective curricula and making this innovation general. The Education Institute has been assessing this experimental programme over the last three years.

6. Curriculum content

The new curricula affect the following subjects:

The mother tongue
Mathematics
Environmental studies
Social and civic education
Natural sciences (physics and chemistry)
Modern foreign languages (English and French)

The implementation of the new curricula followed the design and publication of new school textbooks for all subjects taught at primary school. A teacher's book was produced to accompany each textbook.

The new curricula encompass the following features:

- The aims of primary school
- The goals of each subject taught
- The objectives of the major teaching units
- Prerequisites for achieving the goals
- Activities through which to attain the objectives of the teaching units.
- Recommendations as to how much time to assign to the teaching and learning of the units.

There is a teacher's book for each subject taught in each school year. It is a precious methodological tool for teachers, containing basic methodological principles and suggestions on procedures to follow in organising the teaching and learning of each unit.

The teaching of a modern foreing language (English or French) is introduced in primary schools for the first time. It now comes in after three years and is taught to pupils in the 4th, 5th and 6th year of school.

7. Closing remarks

The way in which curricula are currently assessed fails to satisfy the demands of scientific rigour. It is done in a fragmentary fashion rather than globally. It would perhaps be worth creating a special section within the Education Institute whose principal function would be periodically to assess the various aspects of compulsory education, from the relevance of a given subject's objectives to the quality of the final product.

As a rule, the university Educational Research Centres should be involved in this endeavour. Generally speaking, if we are concerned with finding solutions to problems concerning the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes, it seems to us that we shall fail unless there is cooperation among those responsible for educational policy, those responsible for educational action, and those responsible for knowledge. In other words, teachers and researchers must be brought together to design and assess curricula. Researchers should be brought in on the drawing up of proposals for primary education reform, on the implementation and assessment of new curricula, and on the training of primary teachers and teacher-trainers.

Such a framework for the development of educational research will enable valid. reliable research tools to be designed, and will boost the productivity of the educational endeavour.

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HUNGARY

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1. Introduction

The last centrally produced and published teaching programme for primary education was brought in by the Ministry of Education in 1977. Althought alterations have been made to that programme, some of them important, it is still in force.

The 1985 education law changed the curriculum publication order, and at the same time broadened the ranks of those entitled to a say on teaching programmes. Before 1985, the first step in any educational reform, that is to say curriculum reform, was always a HSWP (Hungarian Socialist Workers Party) resolution on the theories underlying curriculum planning. Ministerial bodies then designed the programmes in question and introduced them simultaneously at each level, for each school and for each subject. The 1985 law sought to decentralise by assigning a role to teachers: they, too, could now decide on the relative weighting of the curriculum's contents, or they could choose to restructure it into a common core and complementary subjects, and they were given a free hand regarding choice of methods. Only the timetable was fixed by the Ministry. The new law also declared that common objectives and requirements would be drawn up by an educational development centre. The other matters traditionally handled by the authorities were placed under the jurisdiction of the body of teachers.

The structure of national education has not changed since 1948.

Nursery school lasts 3-4 years and is not compulsory. Access is flexible and based on the child's capacity and degree of socialisation. Specially gifted children may attend primary school form the age of five, provided a locally-organised committee, comprising a pediatrician, a psychologist and the teacher concerned, approves.

Other children may attend school from the age of six or seven, as their parents decide.

Primary school lasts for eight years and comprises two cycles. In the first four-year cycle, the classes have just one teacher, whereas in the second four-year cycle, there is a specially-trained teacher for each subject taught.

After the eighth year of primary school, education branches out in three directions, namely:

— ***high school***, 4 years + school-leaving certificate

— ***secondary technical school***, 4 years + school-leaving certificate + vocational diploma

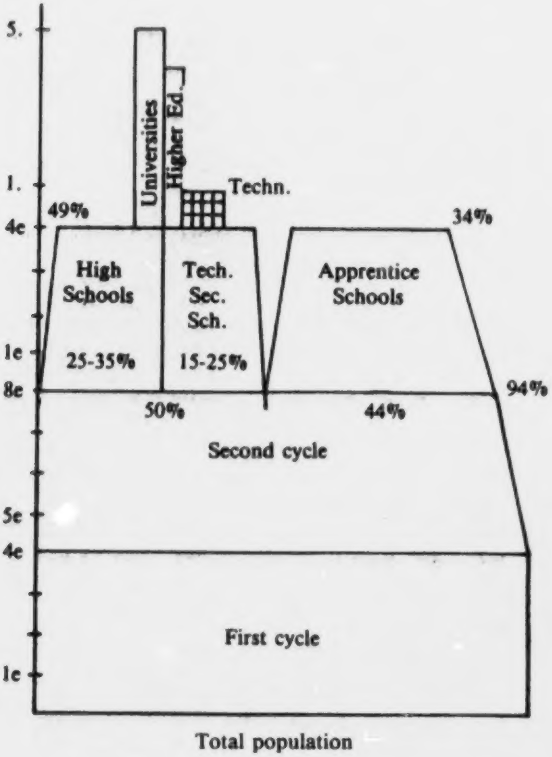
— ***apprentice school***, 4 years + vocational certificate

(i) there are some secondary technical schools in which the level of vocational teaching is slightly lower, and which only enable their students to obtain a vocational studies certificate

(ii) since 1986 there have been extra classes in secondary technical schools aimed at training technicians in one year.

Higher education is provided mainly by universities or colleges of higher education. (See Table 1).

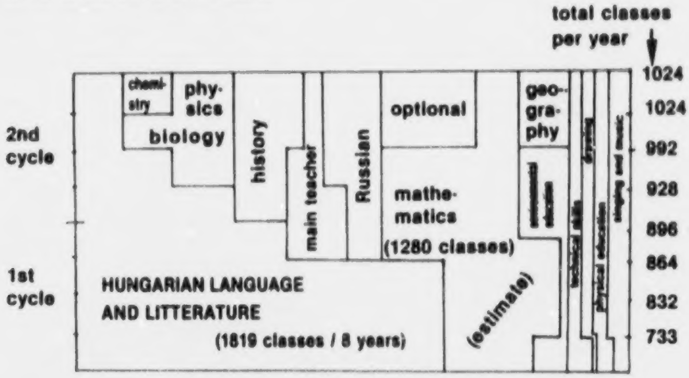
Table 1


5.
Universities
Higher Ed.
1.
Techn.
49%
4e
34%
High Schools
Tech. Sec. Sch.
Apprentice Schools
1e
25-35%
15-25%
8e
94%
50%
44%
Second cycle
5e
4e
First cycle
1e
Total population

2. *Primary school - first cycle*

The school year officially runs from 1st September to 20th June (36 weeks). There are 32 weeks of teaching, with four weeks *during* the school year being set aside for leisure (snow and spring holidays). In practice, it is the school Head who decides the exact dates on which to start and end the school year. Table 2 shows the subjects taught and the amount of space they occupy on the curriculum. The time allotted to teaching is not centrally determined from week to week. The teaching programme establishes the timetable and the total number of class hours per year. Since 1985, teachers have been given a certain leeway to decide upon the weekly timetable, taking local conditions into account, though such decisions may affect only 25-30% of the total number of hours.

Table 2. Content distribution



The table below shows how the timetable is distributed:

Subjects taught	Classes			
	I	II	II	IV
writing	5	4	4	3
reading	4	5	5	4
mathematics	5	5	4-5	4-5
environmental education	3	2-3	2	2-3
physical education	2-3	2-3	2-3	2-3
art	2	1-2	2	2
singing and music	1	2	2	2
technical education	1	1	1-2	1-2
foreign language	—	—	—	2

As a concrete example, a teacher might allocate a week or two to concentrating on a specific task (e.g. work in the school garden), and during that time there would be no other classes.

As regards *teacher training*, this is provided by teacher training colleges, where courses last four years. Holders of school-leaving certificates may gain admission on passing an entrance exam. There are also regional institutes which supervise in-service teacher-training. These are of various types: departmental education institutes, universities and teacher-training colleges; alternatively, all of these may work together to train existing teachers. In-service training is not compulsory. It is the primary school Head who decides which among the teachers working at his/her school should go to which type of institute, and for how long, in order to upgrade their teaching or professional competence or both. Retraining is not one of the most widespread methods among the different types of in-service training. However, now that the Minister of Education has declared that, after 40 years, Russian is no longer compulsory, Russian teachers have begun to take retraining courses, since they will not otherwise be able to find a post.

3. The new primary school curricula

Advantages of the curricula put through in 1977 were as follows:

— The Academy of Science, Hungary's highest scientific body, nominated a committee to help draw up new curricula. As a result, the scientific aspect featured strongly in its documents.

— A highly significant change from the old curricula was a stress on requirements rather than content. By this I mean that the different types of operation which the teacher must enable the pupils to carry out are described. But requirements are also defined in terms of levels of achievement which the pupil must reach after a given period of learning. Note that the first definition takes the teacher's activity as its reference point, whereas the latter relates the requirement to the pupil. According to the educational experts who introduced them into the curricula, these requirements facilitate assessment by laying the foundations, and providing criteria, for judging the efficiency of schools, the effectiveness of teachers' efforts, etc.

Disadvantages of these curricula were:

— The contents were too abstract, too dry and "unmanageable" for most pupils, since the academics — full of the best intentions — had filled the curricula with concepts and scientific explanations, and their educationalist partners had done far too little to stop them.

— In this manner, the contents of the curricula formed the basis of a latent, disguised selection process among children, a selection, moreover, which takes place too early, right from the first class, with cumulative effects thereafter.

As a result:

— The requirements which express desired levels of these contents present criteria which do little to stimulate children's interest in learning: quite the opposite, in fact.

— Teachers are left no room to make their own decisions. I have already mentioned how teachers have been given more freedom since 1985. But the 1977 curricula are still in force, so that the present situation is both ambiguous and contradictory.

— The curricula regulate and describe only children's intellectual-cognitive activities. Other activities aimed at developing other highly important abilities (in the affective and psycho-motor spheres) are neither dealt with nor even touched upon.

4. Curriculum evaluation agencies

After the 1985 law had been passed, the Ministry set up an assessment centre within the National Education Institute. I call it a centre rather than a section because it is a unit of the Institute with a certain independence. Although the Institute pays the salaries of the centre's staff, it has to find its own funds with which to discharge its duties. The centre has proposed three levels of educational assessment.

The national level should comprise large-scale educational surveys based on representative samples, the results of which will be transmitted to the authorities. These surveys are to be systematically repeated every four years. The first such survey took place in 1986 (though it is already clear that the second will not be taking place in 1990), when four age-group populations were examined, those for ages 10, 14, 16 and 18, respectively. Tests were carried out in three areas:

— pupils' reading ability;
— their mathematical competence;
— use of computer science in schools and among pupils.

A questionnaire on the pupils' socio-economic status was used to help interpret the results, together with a questionnaire for parents, asking their opinions regarding their children's progress at school.

Heads of schools which took part in the survey were sent reports explaining:

— the average level on the tests and the variance for each test, for each population and for their school;
— their school's ranking on the national scale;
— some basic results of the survey.

Sadly, although three years have passed since the survey data were gathered, analysis has not yet been completed. Our colleagues are still working on it.

Task and results data bank

Now that the teaching programme is no longer dictated by the Ministry, those who have simply to carry out the teaching, i.e. the teachers, have a certain leeway to decide on contents and methods. As regards assessment, however, there is no longer a common base that can be set by the curricula. To overcome such inherent disparities, the assessment centre proposes that common requirements be set in the form of tasks (or of tests which comprise special types of task). Since the tasks alone are not sufficiently informative, the centre would like to administer them to various samples and, in parallel, to present statistical data and, at the same time, to set the standards for those tasks. (The sample in the survey described in the previous section has already been used to back up the tasks with such data.) This bank was conceived of as offering a useful, permanent service. Anyone interested in assessing pupils at any level, in whatever aspect or aspects, might use it. The tasks and results data bank is already in operation, but, unfortunately, its activity is highly restricted.

Examination system

Examinations did not play an important role in the pre-1985 system. Although examinations were organised (such as those for the school leaving certificate and for qualifying as skilled workers), they failed to provide an appropriate means for correct assessment of pupils' performance. While that had originally been their role, the cardinal question in the assessment of schools had become the extent to which they got through the programmes, rather than the real performance of their pupils. Since completion of the programmes was judged from formal elements of teaching and assessment was based on observation of the teacher's behaviour, the exams had lost their point. They had in fact become little more than school festivals in which appearances were all. According to the assessment centre's proposals, two kinds of examination were needed instead:

— one to assess pupils' general educational level: plenty of subjects, with not too demanding criteria;

— one to assess pupils' special skills: a few optional subjects, with demanding criteria.

I would stress that this system does not envisage an examination at the end of the first primary school cycle.

5. Research and experiment

It is rather hard to explain the relationships between research studies and programmes, between the Ministry and its Institutes or between schools and research results, for all of them are embroiled in a period of change. The old structures are still there, but the institutions, and those who belong to them, are looking for new positions. Moreover, this process began even before 1985. We should remember that the law of that year was due to pressure from the reformists. Although the old authorities are trying to hold on to their power, the other forces in society, who are coming together and making their presence felt, in spite of all their instability, have had a remarkable influence upon the events of 1989.

Under the former model, the Ministry organised experiments in schools to try out its ideas. The least one can say about these experiments is that they suffered from a certain amateurishness. One Head has related how he was sacked for daring to point out the shortcomings of a "ministerial experiment".

It is true, however, that a fair number of educationalists also carried out experiments, but unless they were able to come up with ideological justifications or other alibis, they had to carry them out in secret. We can sum up that period by saying that the relationship between research and curriculum design was not institutionalised.

Parliament has recently altered the Constitution. The reformers are insisting on having a share of power, and that holds for education, too. We may thus expect a new division of labour among teachers, Heads, inspectors (or advisers) and researchers to emerge.

6. Curriculum content

In 1988, the Ministry of Education took up the National Education Institute's proposal for a conference on improving primary education. This conference produced a document, "The concept of primary school development" (= Az àltalànos iskola fejlesztési koncepiòja, ìrta: Zàtonyi Sàndor, OPI, 1987), which contained the following declaration:

There is no longer any need to describe and prescribe the content and requirements of primary school in fine detail. Instead, we should lay the foundations for its functions. These functions might be:

i) to instigate and develop pupils' communicative skills (including their mother tongue, a foreign language and computer science);

ii) to instigate and develop knowledge and use of logic and mathematics (including showing logic, establishing the components of a problem and going on to solve it, tolerance of ambiguity, etc.);

iii) to sensitise children towards art;

iv) to give children an appropriate technological awareness (as consumers);

v) to balance school activities in such a way that the cognitive, affective and psycho-motor spheres develop in harmony.

Compare this with the former programme, which had the following structure and proportions:

i) Ministry instructions / 1 page
ii) timetable / 4 pages

iii) the programme's themes: the role, the goals and the duties of primary school / 17 pages

iv) the purporse of each subject, its content, its methods, its requirements and the tools needed to teach it / 824 pages

v) extra-curricular activities (hobbies, relations with parents, youth movement, etc.) / 30 pages.

The conference, furthermore, did not end in consensus, and no more have been organised since. In the present climate of political change, the powers-that-be no longer wield their former authority. Without going into the situation in detail, it is fairly clear that education, too, will be affected by the multi-party system, by democratisation and by the other profound changes that are taking place in Hungary at the present time.

7. *Closing remarks*

Three major trends are currently in conflict in Hungarian education.

"Conservatives" wish to avoid an earthquake in the educational system, so as to safeguard and preserve all the human values which our schools have traditionally transmitted to their pupils. They want to leave teachers free to function as they wish, as best they can. These "conservatives" are clearly behaving in an apolitical manner, ignoring the undeniable conflicts going on in the schools. Nevertheless, their ideas are very popular among teachers, for they offer the promise of actually being put into effect.

The second group is made up of people who were reformists in recent years, when they demanded that management and schooling be decentralised, so as to broaden teachers' scope for handling problems autonomously and at the same time circumvent central political control, a frequent barrier to educational modernisation. But the Establishment would only allow such decentralisation if it were given guarantees that the educational process as a whole would continue to contribute towards the attainment of its political goals.

The members of this second group have proposed monitoring pupil performance, using large-scale surveys, setting up a data bank of tasks and results and, above all, using the examination system. Although during the years from 1980 to 1988 these efforts could be classed as progressive, nowadays the more the process of democratisation advances, the more such ideas move backwards on the axis of time.

The third group, which embodies the third major trend, takes sustenance from the idea of being European, an idea which opens up before the less developed countries of Europe the prospect of catching up with Western countries in the cultural field, particularly education, as well as in other fields. This group's experts focus on:

a) pupils as future far-sighted beings;

b) schools as a sub-system of society. Consequently, change in any feature of schools requires consideration of the demographic, economic, sociopolitical, financial, scientific and pedagogic components of the issue at hand;

c) teachers or, more strictly speaking, the teacher-pupil relationship (reducing the authority-submission component to a more balanced level in which teacher and pupils become two participants in a single process);

d) relationships among groups of teachers, and relationships between Heads and educationalists with the power to limit their autonomy.

The members of this third group certainly have a vast number of tasks to fulfil. At the same time, they are the ones who might really accomplish them.

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ITALY

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1. Introduction

The education system in Italy

Grades	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5 6
Age	3 4 5 6	6 7 8 9 10-11	11 12 13-14	15 16 17 18 19	20 21 22 23 24
School Level	preschool education (scuola materna) A	elementary school (scuola elementare) B	junior high school (scuola media) C	high schools (scuole sec. superiori) D	universities and higher education institutions E
		Compulsory education			

The Italian education system includes five levels of schooling:

A — *pre-school education* (kindergarten) for children from 3 to 6, not compulsory

B — *elementary school* (for children from 6 to 11, compulsory

C — *junior high school* (low secondary school) for students from 11 to 14, compulsory

D — *high schools* (upper secondary schools) not compulsory for students from 14 to 17 (three year schools: vocational institutes; school for kindergarten teachers), to 18 (four year schools: artistic lyceum; school for elementary teachers), or to 19 (five year schools classical and scientific lyceum; technical institutes; modern languages lyceum)

E — *university and higher education institutions*: professional schools, graduation and postgraduation courses, ecc.

Main reforms that are currently to be discussed and introduced:

a) new national guidelines for preschool education;

b) new national regulations for elementary education: - more than one single teacher in each classroom; - extension of the weekly school attendancy from 24 hours to 27, with the possibility of a more 'prolonged' attendancy where parents and teachers agree to that request; - inclusion in the timetable of new subjects (foreign language, social studies);

c) extension of the compulsion to the age of 16;

d) overall restructuration of the upper secondary education system: - reduction of the various types and channels to few ones; - elimination of the three and four years schools;

e) opening new faculties and courses (expecially in economy and technology field); upgrading the initial preparation of preschool and elementary school teachers to the university level.

System's organization and administration

Level	Office	Authority	Participatory Bodies	Autonomous Institutions
Central	Ministry	Minister	National Board of Education	Inspectors CEDE-BDP*
Regional	Super-intendencies	Super-intendent	———	Inspectors IRRSAEs*
Provincial	Administrations	Super-intendent	Provincial Board of Education	
District	———	———	District Board of Education	
School	Schools	Head	School Board Teaschers' Faculty	
	Classes	Teachers	Classes Committee Committee for the Evaluation of Teaching Service	

* CEDE: Centro Europeo dell'Educazione (European Education Centre), in Frascati.

* BDP: Biblioteca di Documentazione Pedagogica (Pedagogical Documentation Library), in Florence.

* IRRSAE: Istituti Regionali per la Ricerca, la Sperimentazione e l'Aggiornamento Educativi (Regional Institutes for Reseach, Experimentation and In-service Training).

2. Primary education

The basic legislative norms for elementary schools are still today contained in the Act No. 577 dated 5 February 1928 and in the General Regulations for Elementary Education approved on 26 April 1928 with Act No. 1297.

These norms lay down that elementary level education is compulsory from the age of six, is free and lasts five years. The school timetable usually lasts four hours a day for about ten months a year. During the last decade, however, the number of schools operating on a full-day basis has gradually increased. By extending educational activities to the afternoons, a richer programme involving supplementary activities and special subjects is proposed and carried out by additional teachers.

There is not any fixed division of the hours; the teachers are invited to arrange their teaching periods as well as they can, in order to carry out the established curriculum in an adequate way.

It is not allowed to enroll in a class more than 25 pupils, and this number decreases to 20 whe handicapped children are integrated.

In the 'normal' model each class has only one teacher, while in the 'full day' school there are two teachers. Additional teachers are employed in the classes where handicapped children are integrated. Catholic religion specialists intervene in the classes whose teachers decline.

A general reform of the primary education organization is being debated. One of the two branches of the Parliament has approved a text where important innovations are introduced:

— every two classes will be assigned to three teachers or every three classes will be assigned to four teachers, who will arrange the planning of the curriculum among themselves following a team-teaching approach;

— every school will avail of one support teacher every four handicapped children;

— the teachers are expected to distribute equally the time amount among them, but during the first two grades one of them can be assigned a more extended weekly time in one class;

— the weekly attendance is extended to 27 or 30 hours;

— educational projects including a 'prolonged attendance' up to 37 hours per week can be authorized and the existing 'full day' experiences, within the limit of 40 hours per week, are allowed to go on but not to increase;

— the professional duty of the teachers is of 24 hours per week, and precisely 22 teaching hours and 2 hours to be devoted to planning activities with the colleagues of the class team.

As to the initial preparation of the elementary teachers, it has already been said that it takes place at the high school level (upper secondary education) in a four years school leading to a Diploma (Istituto Magistrale). The weekly timetable at the 'Istituto Magistrale' varies from 30 to 33 hours in the four years and it includes: Italian Language and Literature; Mathematics and Physics; Science; History; Geography; Philosophy; Pedagogy; Psychology; Latin; Physical Education; Music; Foreign Language (only in the first two years). Some practical training is attached to the courses of Phylosophy, Pedagogy and Psychology.

One of the most debated reforms is the urge to extend the elementary teachers preparation to the university level. In 1985 the Government dreaw up a new plan for university preparation of the teachers at any school level, choosing the solution of a four-year graduation course; however the bill has not been passed.

The issue has been represented this year in a new bill concerning the regulations of the university system and most likely it will be definitely approved and introduced.

No special preparation is required in order to enter the position of elementary school headmaster. Pressures are increasingly exerted as to the adoption of the criterium of having applicants to these posts prepared at a 'master's degree level' in educational management.

3. New Curricula in Primary Education

The National Curriculum established by the Presidential Decree No. 503 dated 14 June 1955, was recently reformed by the Presidential Decree No. 104 passed on 12 February 1985 after four years of debates and work by a ministerial Commission.

In May 1981 the Minister of Education appointed a restricted Commission entrusted with the definition of the general guidelines and principles for a reform of the national curriculum of the Italian elementary school. In February 1982 the Commission produced a report on the basis of which the Minister appointed a remarcably wider Commission (63 members), which was entrusted with the elaboration of the complete text of the new Curriculum. The new Commission started its work in September 1982, bringing it to completion in November 1983.

The text drawn up by the Commission was submitted to the National Council of Public Education which examined and evaluated it, presenting its report to the Minister in September 1984. The application was started from 1987-88 school year.

With the absence of general conditions of reform, the Ministry authorized "experimental forms of school organization, able to consent the realization of certain essential elements for the new primary school programmes", giving authorization for successive years.

The experimentation consists of operating "models of functionning" that include the extension of the hours in the school week as well as the employment of more than one single teacher in each class, so that the expected new general regulations of the forthcoming reforms can be anticipated in this way.

To bring the new curricula into use, the Ministry has also introduced a Pluriannual In-Service Training Plan in order to draw on a decentralised strategy of school innovations and in-service training for teachers and headmasters. For a five-year period, taking concrete innovations as a basis, all teachers will take part in in-service activities, for 40 hours a year, in the five following fields: Italian; Mathematics; Science; History-Geography and Social Studies; Musical-Visual-Motorial Education.

This plan will develop from activities already carried out and will make the most of local resources: it will end with a phase — at school level — aiming to assess the effective implementation of the new curricula and to evaluate teaching. The running of this Pluriannual In-Service Training Plan has been mandated to the IRRSAEs, in collaboration with the regional and provincial school authorities, the inspectors and the school heads.

4. *Curriculum Evaluation Agencies*

It is best to state immediately that a particular agency or agencies have not been given the formal task of evaluating the introduction of the new programmes. From different sides a proposal has been advanced to establish a national agency for school evaluation. This agency could assume also this responsibility if founded.

The evaluation of the new curricula, as at present it is only possible to reconstruct and describe it, is as follows: it occurred and occurs through a multiplicity of dynamics and situations which put into play a great variety of agencies to which different types of classification can be proposed.

Primarily it is possible to distinguish between *agencies external and internal* to the formal system of instruction. The first consist of, for example, research centres, universities, associations, ad unions, publishing houses, pedagogic and didactic publications. The second consit of all the various authorities present at the different points and levels of the school system.

Between the internal agencies, therefore, the most helpful distinction is that which refers to various territorial levels, which can be validly integrated by the identification of their specific fields of impact and of their particular competence, attributions and methodologies.

A general table of reference could be presented ad follows:

Evaluation agencies

External agencies

Agency	Level	Competence type	Staff	Type of institution	Instrumentation	Influence
Professional Associations	National Local	Pedagogic-cultural	Internal voluntary; to order	Independent organization	Critic-surveying	Internal opinion training,
Unions	national	cultural-representative	idem	idem	idem	direct political pressure
Research centres	national regional local	scientific	internal/ external professional	idem	idem	opinion making
Professional journals	national	professional didactical	professional internal	publishing house	publications	opinion making; diffusion of professional standards

Internal agencies

Agency	Level	Competence type	Staff	Type of institution	Instrumentation	Influence
Ministry of Public Instruction	national	administrative	internal (rarely external)	State organ	bureaucratic	authoritative power over dependants
Inspectorate	national	technical	internal	technical organ	supervision	administrative support
IRRSAE	regional	technical-professional	internal and external	autonomous institution	scientific-cultural	professional training
School personnel	local	technical-professional	internal	public education and didactic worker	research training	self-training, small group training

The evaluation process can be considered at the different stages and issues where it takes place, starting from the schools and finishing at the central agencies.

At the school level, the teachers and the heads are in charge of getting acknowledgeable with the new texts and with its immediate practical implications as to the curriculum and the teaching-learning experiences. The common procedure follows some phases:

— distribution of the text to all teachers from the direction of the school;

— invitation to read the text individually;

— formation of groups of in depth development related to the different disciplines chosen by the teachers;

— brief communication in a teachers' meeting by the groups on the key concepts that have been identified, the reading difficulties faced, the problems emerged (this phase offers the possibility to encourage comments, but also to allow encounters between teachers different from those who usually constitute an interclass and who therefore rarely have formal occasion to meet, if not in the teachers' assembly).

For the period of 1986-1989 the Ministry has indicated to the peripheral inspectors to follow the implementation of the programmes and to refer to them in their annual report. In some regions specific research projects have been set up. As an example let us examine the inspectors project in the region of Emilia-Romagna.

The project intends to verify the implementation of the new programmes for the subjects of Italian and Mathematics.

First of all the evaluation tools used by the teachers in the schools will be collected annually and will be analyzed on a provincial level by working groups consisting of teachers and headmasters co-ordinated by the inspectors. It is possible to deduce the options operated by the teachers and therefore which type of implementation of the programmes has taken place. The outcomes become socialized and referred back to regional level.

In the second place batteries of common tests are arranged at regional level and put to the disposal of the users. The collected data are open to reflection and analysis within the schools and, thereafter, re-elaborated at provincial and regional level to show the results attained and to identify possible needs.

The introduction of the New Programmes for primary school has been accompanied by two interventions of particular importance by the central administration, that is the experimentation of a new organization within primary schools (27-30 hour week for student activity, group teaching by three teachers for every two classes) and the multi-annual in-service courses for teachers, run by the IRRSAEs.

The Central Inspectorate for primary schools has designed specific surveys on these two interventions, of which it is now only possible to describe the procedure, because it concerns plans in process of being carried out.

The inquiry has been carried out utilizing the administrative hierarchy and the inspectorate personnel by means of two procedures:

a) collection of data through closed questionnaires (number of classes, number of students, number of teachers, number of hours, aggregation of disciplines, etc.);

b) consultation with school personnel: it is a participative strategy which considers the inspectors as protagonists who visit the modules, meet and discuss with teachers and heads, confronting reciprocally in order to elaborate cognitive and evaluative syntheses on provincial, regional and national levels on specific issues (such as: the interpersonal and professional dynamics of team teaching, the different ways of grouping the pupils, the interdisciplinary connections, the timetables the relationships between the multi-annual in-service training plan and the implementation of the experimental modules.

The Central Inspectorate is now planning to extend this consultative approach to the evaluation of the multi-annual in-service project, getting direct informations from the school personnel on topics like the following: which professional indications have been offered? which are the levels of correspondence between the in-service activities and the prescriptions of the new national guidelines? which kind of teaching materials have been provided during the courses?...

On these questions all teachers will give their answers, and their opinion will be then collected at the various territorial and hierachical levels: headmasters, central and peripheral inspectors.

The proposal up until now has only been announced, and is has met remarcable criticism from the methodological point of view.

5. Research and Experimentation

This point indicates a question that is particularly critical in Italy.

It is possible to say, in fact, that the interactions between the researchers and the schools and/or the education offices are mostly unsystematic and very randomly structured.

There are some skirmishes that the situation can change in the future. As to the present, it can be useful to quote the example of a new initiative.

The CVAS (Centre for the Evaluation of the School Achievement) of Ferrara is a research institute created by the University, local administrations and School District Boards. The Centre has standardized a number of entrance tests for the three school levels: primary school, middle school and upper secondary school. Since 1985 the Centre administers the tests to a representative sample of the school population of Ferrara. The purpose is to gather a data bank which will permit examining diacronically the trend of the school achievement.

Since the New Programmes of primary school entered into force from 1987, the data gathered by the Centre will made possible by 1993 to star analysing the possible impact of the implementation of the New Programmes — obviously together with many other factors - on the levels of the students entrance rates to the middle school and to compare them with the comparable data of the preceding biennium.

At present this gathering of historical series on the school achievement is, from that is known, unique in the nation.

6. Curriculum contents

The directions given by the New Curricula base upon two main criteria:

a) to ensure a real continuity between primary and pre-school education at the one end and the middle school at the other, and to develop consonant links and relations between them. Also, to introduce common teaching strategies and methods among the teachers at these different levels;

b) to take account of the changes and of the cultural features that characterize our age: for example, the influence of the mass media, the importance and the relevance of scientific logic and language and particularly of informatics, and the difficulties each individual has to face in order to find his own way in a world characterised by conflicting messages.

For these reasons the school must promote the "cultural literacy" of its pupils, i.e. to guarantee the mastery of the languages which is considered as the basic tool for understanding and participating in the cultural life of the present and future age.

The new National Curriculum has widened the didactic scope through a substantial revision of the traditional subjects and introducing new ones (foreign languages, music, movement, etc.) to meet the needs and the curiosity of the pupils.

This text defines the new curriculum as a continuous process which goes from general and non subject-divided education to gradually differentiated learning areas. It is important to note that there will be three teachers over two classes instead of a single teacher in each class, which permits a gradual differentiation and specialisation. These curricula, centrally issued, point out the objectives, the contents and the pedagogical orientations on which the school teachers have to base their own strategies to be adopted in their classes. The elementary school is defined as a place of apprenticeship and learning of fundamental knowledges, a place where basic cultural literacy is promoted, an institution whose duty is to promote the conquest of conceptual tool and an understanding of the contemporary human, natural and artificial world and a place where the pupils develop the fundamental attitudes tóward the democratic citizenship.

In the text of 1955, the five grades of elementary school were divided in two periods: first cycle (I, II) and second cycle (III, IV, V). In the first cycle there is no formal distinction of the subjects, since there are "experiences", "knowledges" and "skills" that must be acquired by means of "the most spontaneous and committed involvement" of each pupil "in the individual research and achievement". The new text doesn't mention this distinction any more and it introduces the subjects from the beginning.

The following table shows the pattern:

Curriculum pattern in 1955 and 1985

1955 Curriculum (only for grades III, IV, V)	1985 Curriculum (for all grades)
Religion Moral and Civic Education Physical Education History, Geography and Sciences Arithmetic and Geometry Italian Drawing and Writing Singing Manual and practical activities	Italian Foreign Language Mathematics Sciences History, Geography, Social Studies Religion Visual Education Education to sound and music Motorial Education

7. *Concluding remarks*

To distribute our concluding remarks in some points:

1) The New Programmes are submitted to evaluation, first of all, as a work of pedagogic-cultural interest and as such are considered under the profile of comment, critical essay, debate and ideologic confrontation.

This first aspect shows at present some main positions, which we summarise as follows:

— The New Programmes represent the necessary adaptation of the Italian primary school to the rational-scientific characteristics of the modern culture.

— The New Programmes form the expression of an illuministic-scientistic approach and of an exaggeratedly cognitivistic vision of the functions of primary school.

— The principles of the "cultural literacy" and of the "education to the democratic partnership" are the core elements, positively shared, of the humanistic-pedagogic vision of the Programmes, while remain prominent perplexities as regards to the risk of a misinterpretation in the sense of the notionalism.

— It can be agreed on the bases and on the cultural ambitions, but strong doubts remain about the real feasibility and above all about the collateral implications (particularly referring to the plurality of teachers).

The analysis of critical and textual-semiotic nature will bring further elements of sophistication and of deepenning as regards to these points.

2) A consistent part of the evaluations in course relate to the various operations of reform that have succeeded to form, rather than a concomitance, a true determinant condition of validity of the Programmes themselves.

The positions in this field can by synthesized in the following way:

— The required reforms (extension of the timetable, plurality of teachers, effective introduction of the teaching of a foreign language, etc.) are indispensable to make the programmes entirely implementable.

— The required reforms have to face a lot of objections and resistances: the new timetable for some is too extensive and for some others too restrictive; a substantial part of the parents and the teachers themselves look with fear at the generalized introduction of systems of team teaching; the teaching staff isn't either ready or predisposed favourably to the required changes; however it has been an error to have conditioned in such a tight way the introduction of the Programmes to the implementation of the reforms, since this connection has ended in becoming an obstacle to their acceptance.

3) Some considerations must be spent regarding strategies of support that can essentially be made to relate to the well known categories of the "formative re-educative" approach (multi-annual in-service training plan) and of the "rational-empiric" approach (experimentation of the organization modules).

In both cases it has dealt with a choice that intended to evaluate to its maximum the interaction with the school personnel directly involved in the implementation of the changes in order to get away from the traditional logic of bureaucratic-impositive nature, but however still remain some critical considerations: the multi-annual in-service training plan represents a measure expensive in quantitative terms, not homogeneous at a national level, and often unable to achieve the expected objectives; the experimentation of the modules has introduced elements of confusion and of controversy in the schools, it has diffused a sense of incredulity regarding to the reform, and it has excited solutions that will be most likely eliminated during the final legislative decision.

4) To conclude let us dedicate some lines to the problem of evaluation in itself.

The ministerial Commission, as already mentioned, had recommended that the Programmes become subject to verification and evaluation, immediate and continuous, in order to have the necessary elements for their permanent revision, which in turn should be the basis for an evaluation system of the working and of the effectiveness of the school as a whole.

The slowness and the complications relevant to its application made impracticable this request of which it appears however necessary a careful reconsideration.

We have had the possibility to meet in our exploration evaluation approaches of a direct nature (the findings of the inspectors, the enterprise of CVAS of Ferrara), and approaches of an indirect nature (text analysis, implication analysis, analysis of up-dating activities): it is easy to verify that, at present, the second ones are predominant over the first. It is necessary to go towards a more reliable balance between the two fields of reference, so as to provide a more consistant basis for judgment.

MALTA

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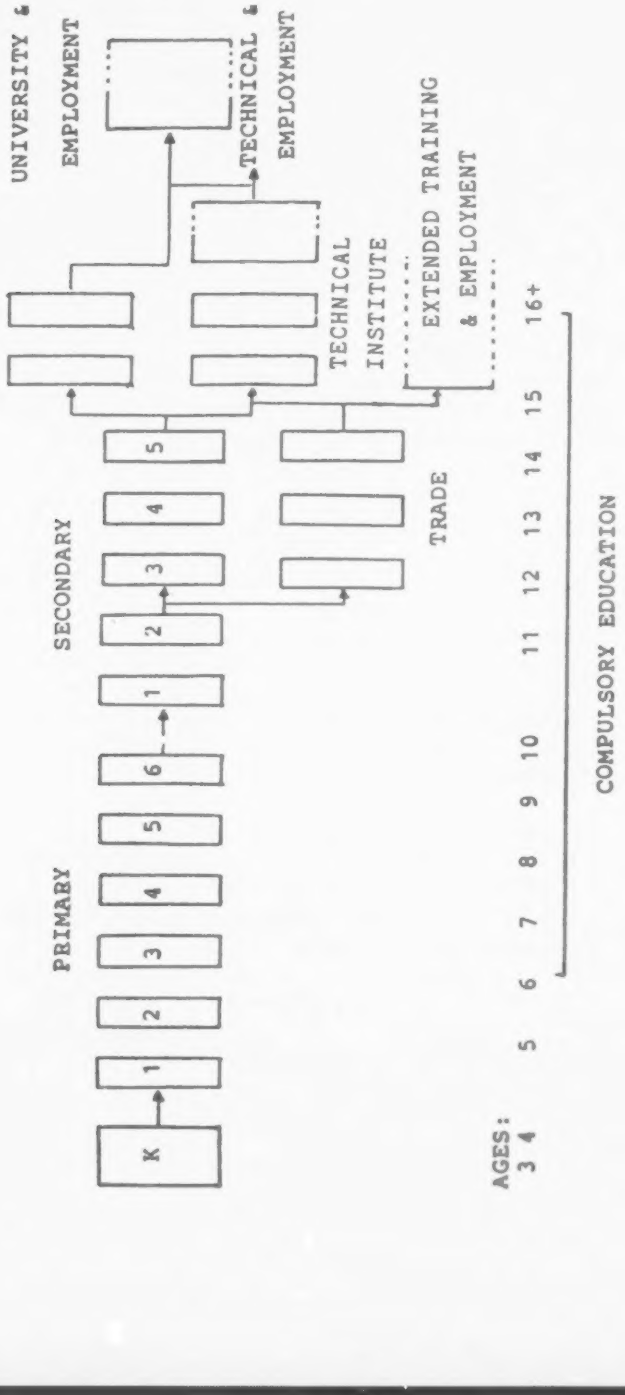
1. Introduction

Malta's tradition of education goes back several centuries: records trace the first state school to 1397, while the University of Malta dates back to 1592. However, until the seventeenth century, regular schooling was provided mainly by the Church. Formal primary education was introduced in 1819 when the Normal School Society, a charitable institution opened its first school in Valletta. Development was slow, and it was two decades later, with the implementation of the recommendations of 1838 Royal Commissioners' Report that primary education began to spread. Soon after the Maltese educational authorities initiated deliberate attempts to increase the literacy level of the general population, and laid the foundations for universal primary education. Legislation for compulsory school attendance was enacted in 1924, to be improved and put into full effect after World War II by the Education Act of 1946. This enforced compulsory schooling for all children aged between 6 and 14. Universal secondary education was introduced in 1970, and vocational education was extensively improved in 1974 when the compulsory school age was extended to 16. The 1988 Education Act, among other improvements, has made school attendance compulsory between 5 and 16 years of age. The effective literacy rate is currently estimated at 87 per cent.

In spite of its size and limited resources, Malta endeavours to provide the highest possible quality education that the small country affords. The educational services have expanded rapidly during the last fifty years so that the Islands now enjoy an extensive system of education which spans a wide spectrum of academic provisions and which caters for most of the educational needs of the citizens. All parties in government, particularly those in power since self-government in 1947, and even more so those following Independence in 1964, have concentrated on educational development with the conviction that investments in education enhance the human potential of the population and compensate for the Islands' lack of material resources. Successive budgets reflect the legislators' belief that human resources are Malta's greatest asset, and that education is one of the principal means to develop and exploit it. Indeed, current educational policy, reinforced by

Figure 1. The Maltese educational system


UNIVERSITY &
EMPLOYMENT
TECHNICAL &
EMPLOYMENT
UPPER
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COMPULSORY EDUCATION

C.Farrugia

the 1988 Education Act, aims to increase significantly the number of young people attending Post-Secondary and University education, as well as to provide the necessary retraining to improve the skills and the competencies of the working population, particularly those in the service sector.

The Maltese Ministry of Education has overall responsibility for the provision of education, and provides the legal framework for the planning of educational policy and the administration of the educational service. The 1988 Education Act renders this responsibility on the State even more explicitly than previously by such articles as that which legislate for the setting up of a minimum national curriculum. The educational system is administered centrally through the Department of Education which is the executive arm of the Ministry and serves to implement educational plans and policies.

Malta enjoys a healthy competition between state and private education especially at the secondary level. At present 28 percent of the school population attend private schools, the majority of which are Church run. Tuition in all state schools is free, and the state provides heavy subsidies to private secondary schools so that these are also virtually non-fee paying, a policy which eventually will be extended to primary education. Furthermore, the state, which is the major supplier of free post-secondary and tertiary education, encourages students to stay on through study grants and vacation employment.

2. *Primary education*

Primary Education in Malta falls within the general structure outlined below: (see also Figure 1)

Ages	**Educational Level**
18 +	Tertiary/University
17-18	Post-secondary, including a) Higher Secondary Schools for Arts, Science and Commerce; b) Vocational Schools; c) Technical Institutes.
12-16	Secondary, including a) Highly Selective Secondary Schools; b) General Area Secondary Schools; c) Trade School.
6-11	Primary
3-5	Kindergarten

Furthermore, the Maltese educational system caters for students with physical, mental or other learning handicaps in special schools, and has a built-in system of remedial teaching. In addition, most government departments, para-statal bodies, private industry, the Church, and numerous philanthropic and cultural organizations provide an extensive and high quality service of formal and informal adult education.

The Pre-Primary and Primary Education sector caters for the highest number of pupils, namely 36,222 children, 26.3 thousand of whom attend state schools and 10 thousand attend private schools.

The scholastic year runs from 19th September to 14th July comprising 140 full-days (27.5 hours per week) from October to May, and 40 half-days (18.75 hours per week) in June, July and the last two weeks of September. The time-table followed in each school is more or less uniform. The recently established Schools Minimum National Curriculum Committee has recommended that as from September 1989 schools can plan their time-tables according to the following guidelines:

Maltese, English, Mathematics and Social Education (approximately 15% of school time); Religious Education, Science/Craft/Technology, and Arts/Music/Drama (approximately 10% of school time); and Physical Education and time used as decided by teacher (approximately 5% of school time).

Head-teachers appointed by the Department of Education are responsible for the administration of state-schools; private schools appoint their own Head-teachers provided they satisfy the academic qualifications demanded by the State. Large primary schools (200+ pupils) have one or more Assistant Head-of-Schools who, like their immediate superiors are appointed on the basis of seniority, academic qualifications and efficiency. Normally Heads-and Assistant Heads-of-Schools do not perform teaching duties, but some do take classes voluntarily when the need arises.

Pre-service teacher education in Malta has been in existance since the beginning of this century, although it was taken in earnest in the immediate post-war years. At present initial teacher education for both the Primary and Secondary sectors is provided by the Faculty of Education at the University of Malta through two programmes, namely the four-year Bachelor of Education (Honours) course and the one-year Post-Graduate Certificate of Education. Holders of these qualifications are entitled to the Teacher's Warrant and state recognized Professional Status. The 1988 Education Act stipulates that all teachers in Malta must hold a Teacher's Warrant, a requirement which aims for the ultimate situations where Malta would have an all-graduate teaching corps. The initial training of teachers has not been able to keep up with the extensive and rapid growth of the educational system so that not all teachers are fully qualified. These are employed on a temporary basis until they obtain the necessary qualifications for a Permanent Teacher's Warrant.

In-service or continuous professional development of teacher is provided by the Faculty of Education and the State's Department of Education. Provisions include short day and evening courses, vacation seminars, facilities to attend Council of Europe and UNESCO courses, etc. all on a voluntary basis. However, for several reasons, a sustained programme of in-service training for all teachers has not evolved, and as yet educational personnel do not have contractual obligations to attend continuous professional development programmes. As a result some teachers do participate in in-service courses; others, who may need such programmes most, do not.

3. New Curricula and Curriculum Evaluation

Several types of formal and informal curricula have been in existance since the formal provision of Primary Education in Malta. Traditionally, the "curriculum" has taken the form of detailed and rigid subject contents and teaching methods dictated by Head Office, and until the Education Act of 1988, no real attempt has been made to legislate for a basic or minimum national curriculum. One notes, for example, that the Education Act of 1946, which made primary schooling obligatory and which identified the general aims which schools should attempt to achieve, did not provide any details on the actual contents and methods through which such aims were to be achieved. The situation prevailed in the amendments to the 1946 Act, as well as in the 1974 Act and its subsequent amendments.

An attempt to provide more specific indicators on the contents and methodology of Primary Schools was made in 1962 by the Inspectorate of Schools through a comprehensive document entitled *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers in Primary Schools*. For some ten years, this document provided the curriculum guidelines for the majority of Primary School teachers.

One notes, therefore that the curriculum of Primary Schools in Malta has evolved into the type which Bernstein calls "a collection of subjects", or strictly compartmentalized entities delivered at pre-defined periods on the weekly time-table. School work is planned by teachers individually according to a pre-scribed syllabus handed down by the Department of Education, or dictated by the choice of textbooks also selected by the Department. Consequently, curricula have evolved through exercises in syllabus construction and revisions consisting of lists of basic content for each subject as defined and prescribed by "ad hoc" committees appointed by the Education Department. Subject and Primary School education officers, heads of schools, classroom teachers, and occasionaly Faculty of Education lecturers, constitute the membership of these committees. Normally, the "syllabus" committee regard their brief as concluded once the syllabus and accompanying text-books are published as was the case with the English reading scheme *The Wild Thyme Readers* introduced in the Late 1940's and the Maltese readers *Id-Delfin* (1970's). The first was dropped twenty years later without any major revisions, the second is still in use after having been revised in the 1980's.

The pattern is changing gradually as can be seen from the Primary Schools Mathematics project, the Religious Education series, and the new curriculum and text-books for Social Science. It should be pointed out that the shortcomings are often imposed by the limited market of the Maltese Islands which precludes extensive and repeated attempts of revision and reprinting of text-books since the demands on personnel and the economics involved render the costs prohibitively expensive. Furthermore, the prevailing pattern of incomplete curriculum development and evaluation in Malta does not necessarily result from lack of commitment or goodwill by the individuals concerned. It stems from the fact that a limited number of specialized personnel in a small educational system have to fulfill multifunctional roles and duties which force them to move on from partly finished assignments to more pressing demands. Consequently much of the follow-up evaluation and revisions of curricula are of the Formative rather than the Summative, the Internal rather than the External, and the Non-formal rather than the Formal types.

Such curriculum development and evaluation means thât some teachers, headteachers and education officers take the initiative to expand, evolve and improve the syllabii provided by Head Office. They adopt and fit them to the particular needs of different groups of pupils, while others follow slavishly and without imagination the dictates provided centrally. A contrasting situation prevailed in Private Schools: until last year these were free to establish and follow their own curricula without any obligation to conform with the nationally set syllabii. The majority of teachers in these schools do follow the general requirements, others (like many of their counterparts in the State system) succumb to the temptation to stress cramming, memorization and rote-learning in order to prepare their pupils for the highly selective private and state Secondary Schools Entrance Examinations. These methods overemphasize the formalized teaching of Maltese, English and Mathematics, and ignore "secondary" subjects like History, Geography, Social Studies, etc.; they concentrate on information/cognitive based teaching and learning, and abandon the socio-affective and psychomotor domains.

Many educators in Malta deplore this state of affairs to the extent that many teachers and officials at all levels have been campaigning for a more rational approach to curriculum implementation. The 1988 Education Act reacts to these concerns through two major provisions, namely the establishment of:

1) a minimum national curriculum for Primary and Secondary education and,

2) School Councils.

The first aims to provide specific guidelines on what the minimum Primary and Secondary Schools curricula should consist of. It aims to ensure that all schools provide instruction in a range of subjects that cater for the moral, emotional, intellectual, physical and social development of pupils, rather than concentrate on two or three subjects that are taught through restrictive instructional strategies. School Councils aim to reduce the highly centralized system by devolving central authority to the schools providing them with a higher degree of administrative and curricular authonomy, and encouraging them to develop their own identity and character. It is hoped that both statutes will contribute towards the overall aim of enhancing the professionalization and the democratization of the Maltese educational system. These are well intentioned and commendable aims. It still has to be seen, however, whether their objectives will be achieved since success will depend to a large extent on the authorities' ability to change traditional attitudes. The mentality in the past has been to follow central, authoritarian directives, and it is necessary to alter that by a mentality which encourages initiative, self-control and democratic decision-making in education. If succesful, these provisions can provide the framework within which curriculum development can be initiated and pursued directly in the schools.

4. Curriculum content

The minimum national curriculum for the Maltese educational system states that teaching at primary level should start to be formal, and should be intended to achieve five principal aims, namely[1]:

1) Good behaviour and character formation

a) in the moral and religious field, in order that children may learn to act according to what is right, to love their fellow men and to revere God.

b) in the social field, so that they learn how to conduct themselves in society.

c) in the field of good health and hygiene, so that they learn how to maintain cleanliness and to take proper health care.

d) in the field of self control so that they can cope with life.

e) in the environmental field, so that they realise that they should appreciate and safeguard our habitat.

f) in sporting spirit, so that they learn to behave well at play.

2) Acquisition of the tools of knowledge and expression by the teaching of:

a) the Maltese and English language, in the spoken, read and written forms.

b) the value of numbers and mathematics.

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[1] The quoted parts are taken verbatim from the legal notice on the Minimum Primary Curriculum issued by the Ministry of Education.

3) An introduction into the culture of contemporary Malta to include:
a) the study of history,
b) initiation into the appreciation of poetry, drama and music,
c) initiation into the appreciation of figurative and applied Arts,
d) explanation of folklore,
e) understanding of the communication media.

4) Introduction to scientific knowledge to include:
a) elements of physics, chemistry and biology,
b) elements of geography and environmental science,
c) elementary notions about the human body,
d) elementary technological concepts.

5) Training in activity, creativity and independence of thought and action:
a) in recreational, sport and leisure activities,
b) self expression in practical form,
c) work attitudes.

The curriculum emphasizes "that whilst teachers should be careful to cover all five parts of the programme of teaching, and whilst they should ensure that the teaching in one part should be integrated with that of other parts, a certain latitude should be allowed in the allocation of time between one section and another. It is assumed that a high proportion of the timetable will be taken up with the teaching of Maltese, English and Mathematics, nevertheless one ought to lay special emphasis on the first section which is markedly addressed towards character formation". It advises that "the best teaching methods are those that stimulate reactions from the child, which rely on problem solving and which make use of the satisfaction that is derived from the achievement of success in learning". It stresses the promotion of concrete methods and visual aids in class and the involvement of children in direct learning experiences.

The guidelines in homework suggest that "it should be mainly used for two specific reasons, namely, that children acquire the habit of performing on their own without the teacher's help, and to practise what they have been taught; it should not be too long, too repetitive, or to occupy too much of free time". The guidelines on tests and examinations argue that these should not force children into sheer memorisation and cramming but outght to serve as a measure of the children understanding and opportunity to show their talents.

The Primary Curriculum stresses the promotion of the national identity through the teaching of the Maltese Language. It lays down that Maltese is the first language to be used in schools, but teachers should also seek to speak English which is Malta's major link with the outside world.

The primary school curriculum aims to train children to share common activities as against learning passively, and to parcipate in healty competition. They should also be taught to accept success and failure, to play fair and to act in a team spirit. Children should be helped to develop self control, self confidence and self reliance.

It is far too early to predict the outcome of these legislative measures that lay down a basic national curriculum. It is hoped that they will reverse the prevailing emphasis on examination-dominated instruction. As argued earlier the curriculum that presently prevails in Maltese schools demonstrates the influence of three traditions of primary schooling, namely what W.A.L. Blyth in 1967 identified as the developmental, the preparatory and the elementary. The developmental tradition is manifest in the infant years (5 - 7 age-range) where the absence of examination pressure and prescribed textbooks offers teachers sufficient opportunities to plan and design child-centred curricular activities. In the later years of the primary school (8 - 11 age-range) the curriculum for the weaker streams focuses on the basics, namely reading, writing and arithmetic with the aim of ensuring that pupils will eventually leave the Primary school equipped with the rudiments of primary education. In the better streams the traditional curriculum has reflected the excessive emphasis on the preparation of pupils for the next stage of schooling, preferably of the Secondary Grammar School type. In this mode, the efforts of pupils, teachers and parents are directed towards the highly selective 11+ secondary school entrance examination.

One hopes that the new Minimum National Primary Curriculum with its emphasis on the development of the whole child, will do away with strict academic differentiation, and instead will stress a more rational and liberal approach. It is also hoped that the new developments will effectively allow teachers and schools to exercise their professional competencies and to develop curricular content and pedagogies that will be best suited for their pupils. It will be a great pity if the provisions of the new Education Act are interpreted by officials as new legislative authority to impose contents and methods in the mistaken belief that they are the only experts who "know best".

5. *Research and experimentation*

Since its origins in the mid-nineteenth century, the Department of Education has concerned itself more with the organization and administration of an educational service than with the promotion of curriculum research and evaluation. The managerial problems have engaged the main energies of officials in the Department and scanty attention has been given to the development of systematic educational research. It is only recently that curriculum research and evaluation are being regarded as important areas of educational concern. As a result Malta has no specific agencies to which the Department can commission curriculum research.

The main body of researchers in Education are the members of the Faculty of Education, who collaborate closely with education officers, heads of schools and teachers on individually initiated projects. Most of this research is placed in the service of limited areas of teaching rather than utilized by the policy makers for major decision-making or national implementation.

This does not mean, however, that evaluation of the curriculum has been totally absent from the Maltese educational scene. The inspectorate in the Department visit schools, report about the quality of work seen, and occasionally publish their findings in the form of surveys and reports.

The Inspectors' Survey of Primary Schools (1963), and the Report on Children Requiring Remedial Education (1982) as well as the Report on Organizational Development in Schools (1989) are early and the most recent examples respectively. Furthermore, data and evaluative information about the implementation and effects of the Primary Curriculum are made available to the Department through its Test Construction Unit which provides detailed analyses of pupils work in the annual examination. Until now the Department of Education has employed the two traditional mechanisms through the inspectorate and examinations to gather information about the quality of pupils' academic achievement in schools. In the light of the Frascati discussion, the Maltese educational system employs more the informal and in-house rather than the formal and external mode of curriculum research and evaluation. Many educators in Malta regard this as a deficiency in the educational system and have been urging members of the Department of Education, staff from the Faculty of Education, and teaching personnel in school to work and together to establish properly instituted and efficiently functioning curriculum research development and evaluation teams. The prevailing practice is far too individualistic and haphazard when the system requires more clearly defined and focused national curriculum instruments.

6. Conclusion

An objective evaluation of the evolution of the Primary School Curriculum in Malta reflects the major factors that have influenced the development of the wider educational system, and Maltese society at large. These are (a) the Islands' colonial past and their dependency on the larger, more forceful metropolitan powers, (b) the Islands' limited human and physical resources; and (c) the small, closed and transparent society. This is not the place to delve deeply into the three issues, however a cursory look at these three factors reveals the significant impact they have had and continue to exert on the Primary Curriculum.

Colonial policy encouraged, indeed often enforced, the values and attitudes of the colonizers, and since universal primary education in Malta developed in the British period, the local educational system followed the British pattern. This meant the adoption of curriculum content, textbooks and instructional styles which from time to time prevailed in Britain to the extent that even the content of purely indigenous subjects such as Maltese history, geography and Maltese readers were styled on the British pattern. The British influence on Maltese primary education has, in general, had a most positive effect, since Malta benefited from the U.K. experience and curricular developments. At the same time, however, dependence on the colonial power led to over-reliance on foreign ideas, concepts, teaching materials and teaching methods, to the neglect of native, indigenous approaches which could be more suitable to local educational needs. For example, one of the reasons why curriculum evaluation has been so slow to take root in Malta, stems from the taken-for-granted assumption that anything originating in Britain had to be unquestionably "good" and consequently beneficial to Maltese students. After 25 years of Independence, these attitudes linger on. They are reinforced by local desire, and often the need, for students to attain overseas academic qualification that have foreign recognition, and by the necessity of adopting foreign textbooks which are too time-consuming and costly to produce locally.

The Islands' limited human and material resources also have a strong bearing on the extent to which curriculum innovation, development and evaluation can take place. For its size and material wealth, Malta provides an extensive and high quality educational service which demands finance and manpower resources that tax its limitations to the full. Educational personnel have to operate in multi-functional roles that range from school inspectors to supply officers, from personnel managers to data collectors, from ministerial advisors to resolvers of conflicts among educational as well as minor, support staff. These multifarious roles are extremely taxing on the individuals concerned; they require time, energy and the singular ability to switch from one task to a totally unrelated one quickly and frequently. This requirement can be both physically and mentally exhausting. In curriculum development, the shortage of people means that the same group act, as the designers, the implementors and the evaluators, a situation that not only strains the academic abilities of the individuals concerned, but has the inherent danger of becoming in-bred, and consequently flawed.

The third major factor that influences curriculum development in Malta relates to the Island's small size (316 sq.km.) and its minuscule population (350,000) where everyone practically knows everyone else — or knows the people that matter. To avoid suspicions and accusations of political or personal discrimination, the authorities have to exercise great caution in matters that concern education, such as the selection of text-books and the award of grants to produce instructional materials. In the past, some outdated curriculum material has been retained simply not to "rock the boat" and provoke the ire of this or that revered and established author.

The close, transparent society with keen competition for University places and the limited well paid jobs in the professions in commerce and in industry also generates the frenetic acquisition of more and higher paper qualifications to the extent that many Maltese in white-collar occupations are over qualified for the jobs they perform. The keen competition leads to an early academic rat-race and the diploma disease which in turn encourages a highly selective educational sytem overreliant on examinations. In a highly competitive milieu, the latter are regarded as tension-generating, educationally restrictive means of academic evaluation, and yet, in a highly inter-related and personalized society, examinations are also accepted as common and therefore socially valid processes of selection. The consequence of such attitudes on the curriculum, even at the primary level are far-reaching in a most negative way.

The three major factors identified above have had and continue to have positive as well as negative impacts on the development and evaluation of the Primary School Curriculum. These cannot be enhanced or reduced overnight. It is a reality, however, that Malta has ceased to be a British colony in 1964, that it has been attempting to reduce its colonial dependence and to develop its long and rich national identity, that it is looking towards Europe as its natural political and cultural habitat. The Maltese Primary Curriculum has to reflect this awareness. Likewise, developments in curriculum design, implementation and evaluation have to recognize that the demands for more and better educational provisions in all sectors of the Maltese educational system will continue to increase and that there will still remain a shortage of personnel and finance to meet the demands. Furthermore, future developments in the Primary Curriculum have to consider seriously the growing awareness among Maltese educators and the public at large, that in the past the functional element of education has been overstressed thus rendering the educational process too achievement and examination oriented. Future developments in the Primary Curriculum have to lay less stress on the information/cognitive domain, and balance it with greater emphasis on the socio-affective aspects of the educational process.

Finally, an improved Primary Curriculum in Malta has to reflect and incorporate the pedagogical developments that are taking place in the field. These are more likely to materialize through closer collaboration between educational researchers, who have the instruments, educational officers, who possess the administrative know-how, and classroom practitioners who live the teaching experience. Attempts by any one group to dominate or dictate will generate consternation among the rest, while genuine understanding of each other's problems and co-operation will more likely produce a curriculum that is indigenous and relevant to local needs.

PORTUGAL

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1. The Organization of the teaching system and the new curricula

A decisive process of change in the educational system is going on now in Portugal.

The basic law governing the educational system: law no. 46/86 of October 14th, passed by the parliament in 1986, is taking on capital importance. This law in effect makes it possible to close a serious gap in the education sector. Despite the deepcutting changes already made in the system as the result of the new political and social order instituted after April 25th 1974, teaching was being governed up to 1986 by a fremework law passed in 1983.

Preschool education is meant to be complementary and supplementary to the education given by the family.

School education includes primary, secondary and higher grades. It also includes those specialized modes such as special education for the handicapped, vocational training, adult education, education by correspondence, and the teaching of Portuguese abroad.

Out of school Education involves activities of basic reading and writing, improvement, and the start of vocational education, the reconversion of vocational education, and vocational updating.

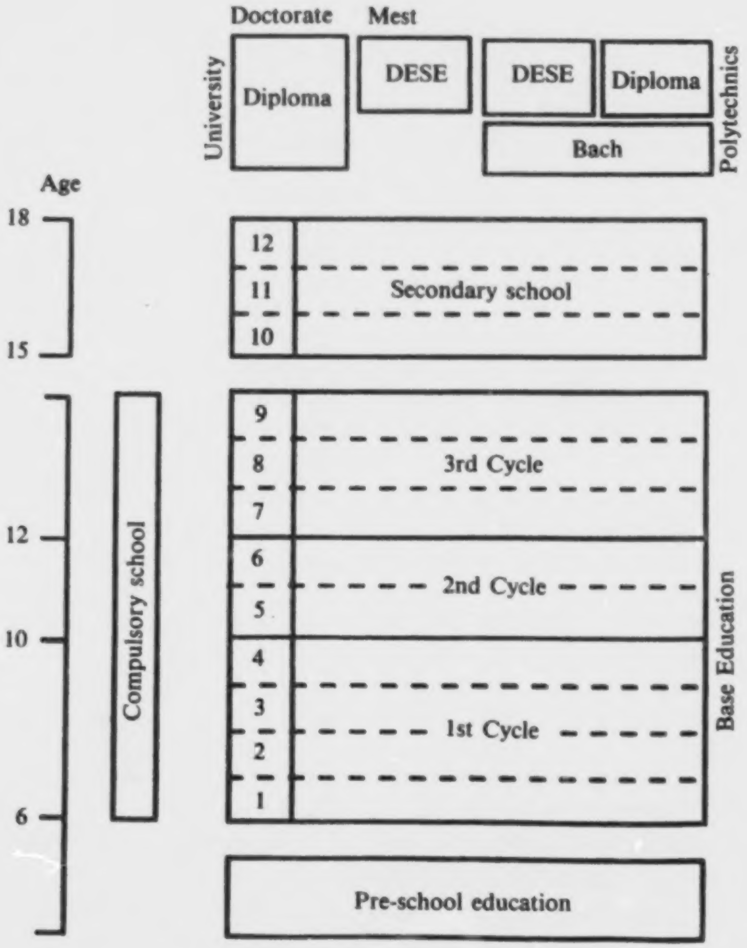
Among the deepest modifications introduced into the educational system, there should be noted:

— the extension of compulsory schooling from a period of six years to nine;
— the new organization of basic education.

Compulsory education has thus been extended over a period of nine years: from the age of six years through 15 years, and it comprises three sequential cycles lasting respectively four years, two years, and three years.

The provisions regarding the duration of compulsory schooling for a period of nine years have already been applied to the pupils registered for the first year of basic school during the 1987-88 school year.

Tab. 1: General organization of pre-school and school education.


Doctorate
Mest
University
Diploma
DESE
DESE
Diploma
Bach
Polytechnics
Age
18
15
12
10
6
12
11
10
Secondary school
9
8
7
3rd Cycle
6
5
2nd Cycle
4
3
2
1
1st Cycle
Compulsory school
Base Education
Pre-school education

Up till then basic schooling comprised six years of schooling, distributed as follows:

— primary schooling, lasting four years: the children were registered for school at the age of six years, and each grade had but one teacher responsibible for every subject;
— preparatory schooling, the second step in the pupil's school career, lasting two years and designed for children from 10 to 12 years old. Teaching was organized according to the rule of one teacher for each discipline (Tab. 2).

But the application of the new law is taking place in phases, and demands complementary legislation.

Since the framework law was prmulgated in 1986, a number of sectorial studies have been undertaken, in coordination with a commission set up by the governement for the purpose: the Commission for the Reform of the Educational System.

The tasks and purposes of this commission have been the subject of public discussion, but the final decisions must be made by the competent authorities.

Among the proposals presented, the project for the Reoganization of the primary and secondary teaching curriculum plans excited the especially lively interest of the public, and in this regard, the Education Ministry estimated that this project could form the point of departure for the reform of the educational system.

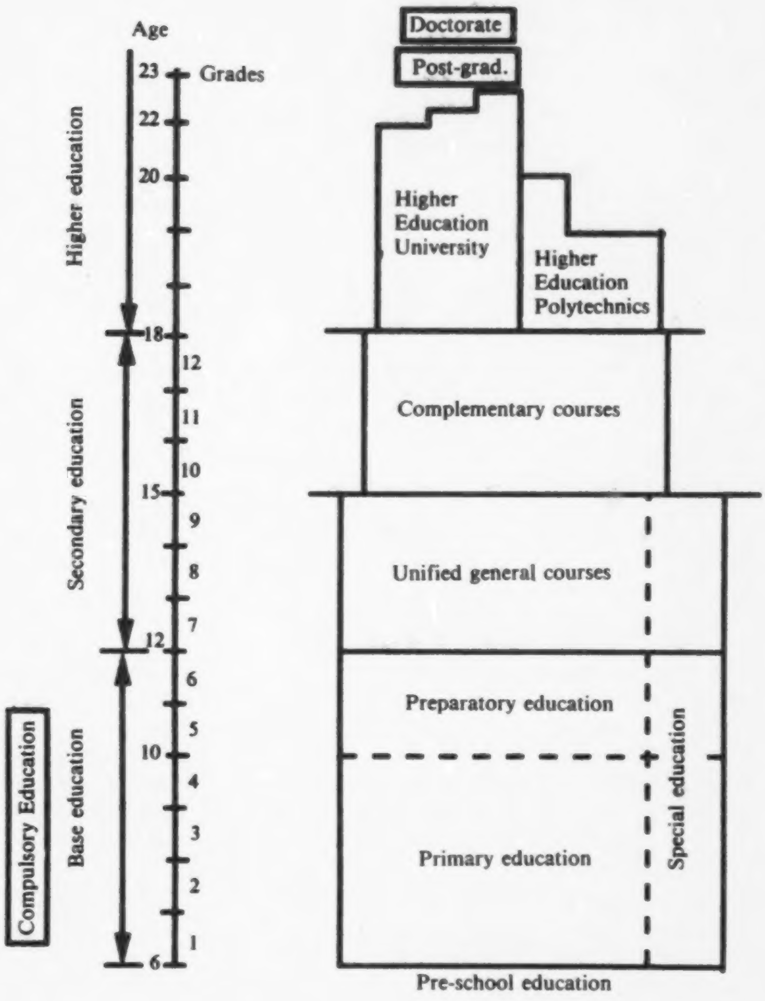
The initial project, worked up starting from the basic framework law, delimits the objectives set for the two teaching levels; it further proposes, for each level and each cycle, their pedagogical and curriculum organization, their study programs, and other general rules concerning the organization of teaching.

Teams of teachers and of specialists in the various disciplines at their various levels are right now working up the program plans. Among the documents already finished, we have chosen to cite a few references that seem to us to be very important for the purposes of this project.

Thus, the document entitled «Reorganization of the curriculum plans» defines three broad types of objectives in the base law: education of the person, social integration, the acquisition of knowledge and of competence, and civic education; it also enunciates the general objectives of the basic teaching as being:

— the understanding of oneself and of others:
— the capacity to establish contacts with the different groups one must become part of;
— the critical understanding of the natural and social realities in which the individual is inserted;
— mastery of basic scientific and cultural information and of its updating;
— capacities and attitudes of democratic and social participation: in school, in the world of work, and in society;

Tab. 2: Organization of the educational system in Portugal


Age
Grades
23
22
20
18
15
12
10
6
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
Higher education
Secondary education
Base education
Compulsory Education
Doctorate
Post-grad.
Higher Education University
Higher Education Polytechnics
Complementary courses
Unified general courses
Preparatory education
Primary education
Special education
Pre-school education

— mastery of the means facilitating access to first-hand information, self-education, critical reflection, and esthetic pleasure:
— construction of a system of personal values.

So far as the national reports are concerned, we note the following guidelines:

— suggestions on multidisciplinarity and on interdisciplinarity:
— educational activities as applied to the individual interests and needs of the pupils;
— bringing out of the importance of the acquisition of methodologies and study instruments for personal work;
— the school's relationship with its milieu.

Regarding the above we can state that the new curricula take perfect account of every item. They are expressed within the objectives of each cycle, within the definitions of the study plans, by means of suggestions for activities, as well as in the methodological indications contained in the programs.

An articulated and interdependent interpretation of the aspects that we have just outlined will clearly reveal the importance of these parameters.

2. The evaluation of the curricula of basic schooling

In Portugal at present there is no coordinated or systematic procedure for evaluating school curricula.

The evaluation of the system — if one may so express it — is essentially performed through the checks made by *Inspection* (inspectors who work individually at the schools) but this unorganized and unsystematic checking does not make it possible to gather precise information concerning the evaluation of the curriculums or of the system.

The Inspection system has, furthermore, more a function of maintaining surveillance over teaching, rather than of evaluating the system.

On the other hand, two central departments, the GEP and the DGEBS[1] have undertaken careful evaluations of isolated aspects or situations, or also of experiments organized at the initiative of the ministerial departments.

Within this perspective, the GEP, in its capacity as a participating member of various projects of the OECD/CERI and of the IEA, is encharged with the organization of studies, owing to which it is hoped to progress towards a more systematic and better justified teaching system. It is proposed in particular to define teaching indicators that make it possible to characterize the effectiveness and efficiency of educational systems, as well as conditions for comparison at the international level regarding: the flow of pupils (1), learning products (2), schools and their context (3), and costs and financing (4).

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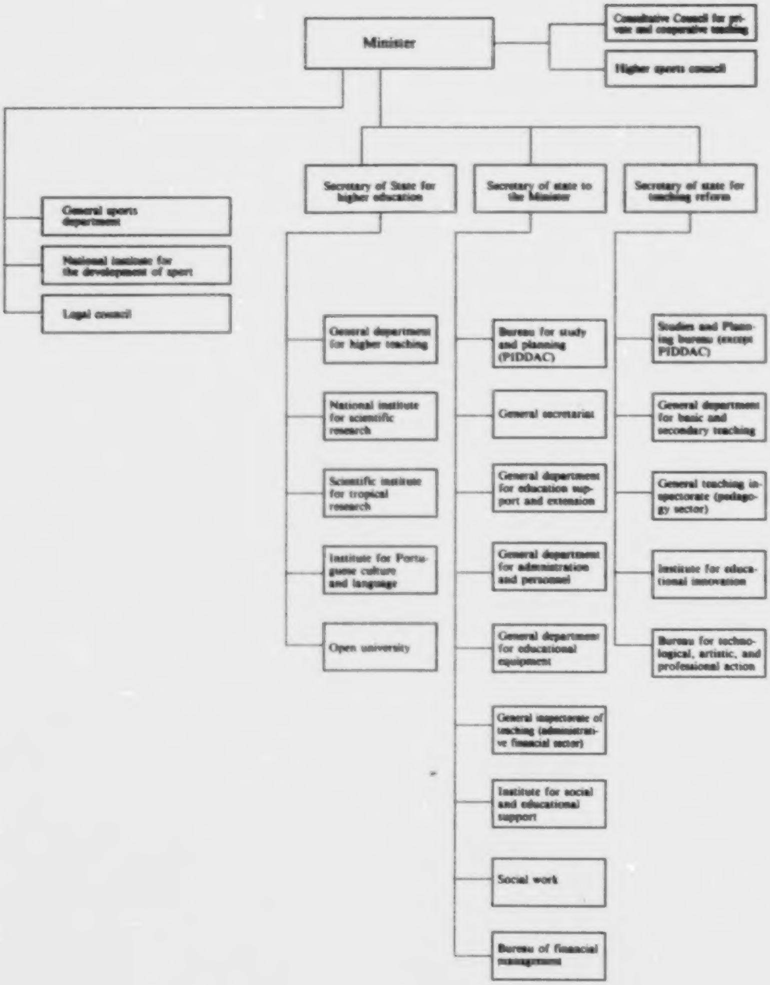
[1] GPE: Bureau for studies and planning.
DGEBS: General Department for basic and secondary schooling

Tab. 3: Ministry of Education


Minister
Consultative Council for private and cooperative teaching
Higher sports council
General sports department
National institute for the development of sport
Legal council
Secretary of State for higher education
Secretary of state to the Minister
Secretary of state for teaching reform
General department for higher teaching
National institute for scientific research
Scientific institute for tropical research
Institute for Portuguese culture and language
Open university
Bureau for study and planning (PIDDAC)
General secretariat
General department for education support and extension
General department for administration and personnel
General department for educational equipment
General inspectorate of teaching (administrative financial sector)
Institute for social and educational support
Social work
Bureau of financial management
Studies and Planning bureau (except PIDDAC)
General department for basic and secondary teaching
General teaching inspectorate (pedagogy sector)
Institute for educational innovation
Bureau for technological, artistic, and professional action

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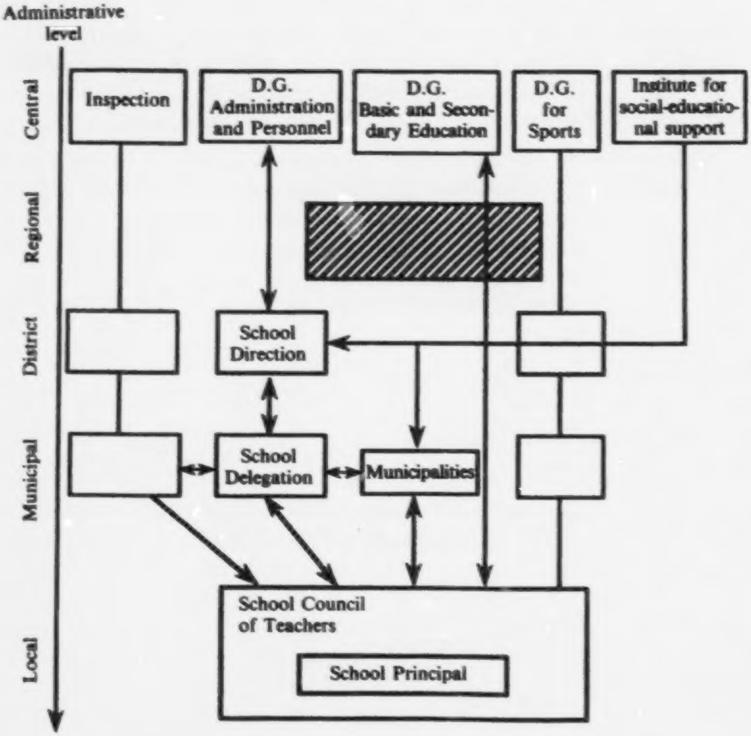
Tab. 4: Pedagogic-Administrative system of Primary Education


Administrative level
Central
Regional
District
Municipal
Local
Inspection
D.G. Administration and Personnel
D.G. Basic and Secondary Education
D.G. for Sports
Institute for social-educational support
School Direction
School Delegation
Municipalities
School Council of Teachers
School Principal

▨ Regional Directorates of Education (North, South, Central Portugal, Lisbon)

1) School left during the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades: entry into active life.

2) Characterization of the level of literacy of the Portuguese school populations. Characterization of the levels of scientific and mathematical knowledge of the Portuguese school population.

3) Overall action of the primary and secondary schools. Overall action of the schools of the first cycle and of the basic schooling — small and isolated (schools).

4) Availability of a model (LINSSE) that will have as its object to make forecasts and planning situation simulations of the endogenous variables of the educational system, making it possible to concretize projective studies that facilitate the definition of development projects for the educational system. Estimation of costs and totals for the educational system.

The new basic law calls for the educational system to be the subject of continuous evaluation (article 49), and requires that it be attentive to educational and pedagogic, psychological and sociological, organizational, economic and financial aspects, as well as aspects of a politic-administrative and cultural nature.

It further establishes the various mechanisms to be applied to making this evaluation concrete:

- research in the education field
- education statistics
- school inspection
- support structures.

This last-named aspect constitutes an innovation of the greatest importance from the standpoint of ideas on evaluation, and will have a considerable impact on the development and evaluation of the curricula. In effect, according to the base law, these structures must support curriculum development activities, stimulate innovation, and contribute to the evaluation of the system and of educational activities, in close cooperation with the schools and with research bodies and teacher training institutes.

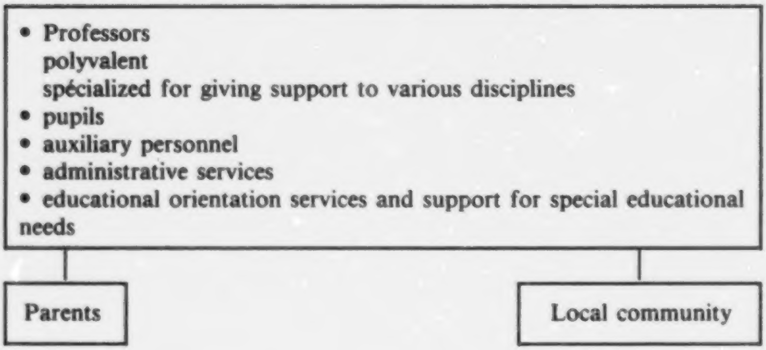
But the law defines no more than general principles. Its application and its putting into concrete form, as is the case for the other aspects mentioned, are the subject of discussion within the framework of the Reform.

The joint scheme annexed translates a proposal for the intervention of the local structures supporting a truly integrated school, sustained by and articulated within the education system, which will make it possible to create the necessary and essential conditions for an evaluation of the education system and of its activities.

This summary setting forth of the problems currently arising within the framework of the teaching and curriculum reform expresses Portugal's special interest in the discussion of the topics of this project.

SCHOOL UNITS

One or more teaching levels
one or more specialized school buildings (library, gymnasium, cafeteria).



- Professors
  polyvalent
  spécialized for giving support to various disciplines
- pupils
- auxiliary personnel
- administrative services
- educational orientation services and support for special educational needs

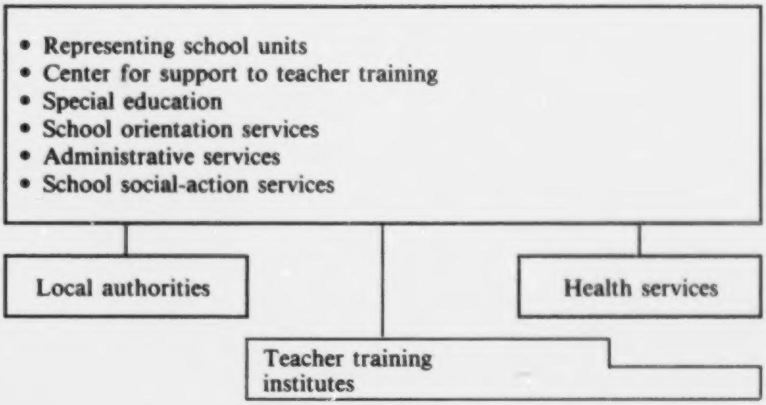
Parents

Local community

School commune

One or more school units

Possibilities | groupings of «communes»
subdivisions of communes



- Representing school units
- Center for support to teacher training
- Special education
- School orientation services
- Administrative services
- School social-action services

Local authorities

Health services

Teacher training institutes

TURKEY

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Ankara, Turkey

1. Introduction

According to the Primary Education Law, number 222 and to the National Education Basic law, number 1739 the Türkish National Education System consists of two main parts, called the formal and extended educations. The formal education includes the pre-school education, the primary, secondary and higher instruction institutions. The extended education includes all the educational activities performed together or apart from the formal education. The Türkish Educational System has been shown in Table 1.

The elementary education includes the education and training of 6-14 years old children. The Elementary Education is obligatory for all the male and female fellows and it is carried out in the schools of the Government without paying any money.

The aim and functions of the Elementary Education, which are parallel to the general aims and the basic principles of the National Education, are the following:

1) To give every Turkish child the necessary basic knowledge, behaviour and habits and to train him according to the national moral understanding.

2) To train every Turkish child according to his interest, ability and skill and thus prepare him for the higher education.

The elementary education institutions according to the Elementary instruction and Education Law, number 222, are as follows:

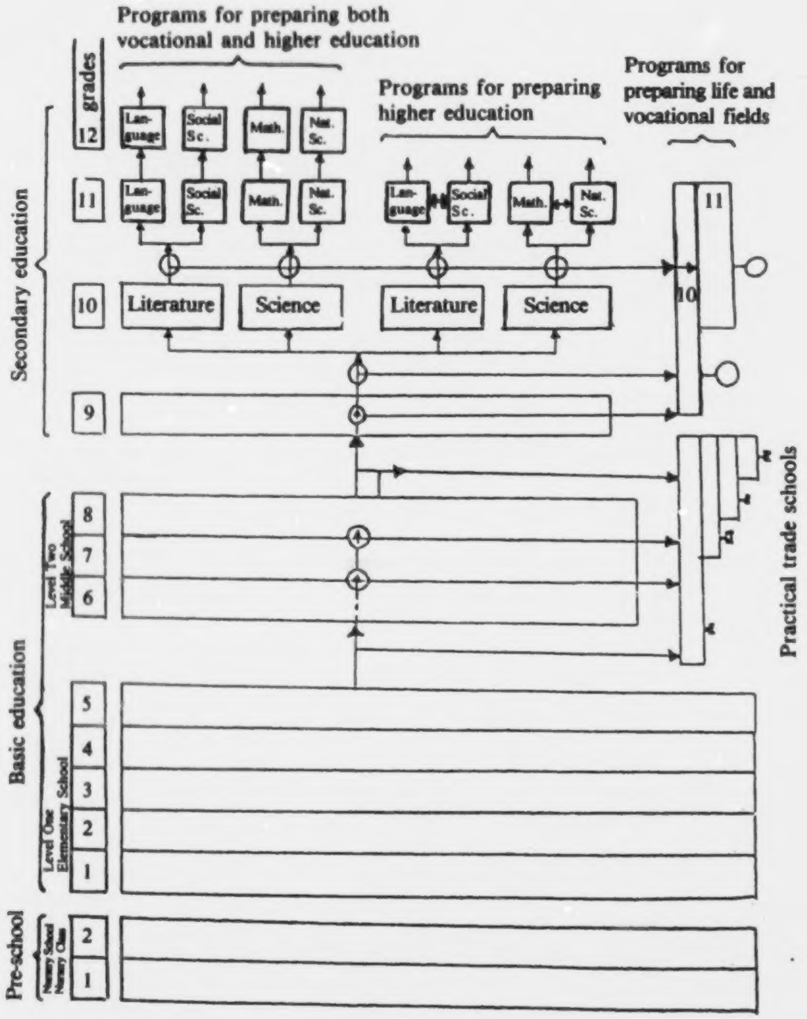
a) *The obligatory ones:*

1) The Elementary Schools (day schools, schools with pensions, boarding schools and travelling schools).

2) The middle schools (day schools, schools with pensions, boarding schools and travelling schools).

3) The Basic Education schools which contain the elementary school and the middle school together (day schools, schools with pensions, boarding schools; elementary school of 5 years + middle school of 3 years; elementary education 8 years).

Table 1: The structure of the turkish education system (according to the principal law on national education)


Programs for preparing both vocational and higher education
grades
12
11
10
9
8
7
6
5
4
3
2
1
2
1
Language
Social Sc.
Math.
Nat. Sc.
Language
Social Sc.
Math.
Nat. Sc.
Programs for preparing higher education
Language
Social Sc.
Math.
Nat. Sc.
Programs for preparing life and vocational fields
11
10
Literature
Science
Literature
Science
Secondary education
Level Two Middle School
Basic education
Level One Elementary School
Pre-school
Nursery School
Nursery Class
Practical trade schools

4) The training and supporting classes and courses.
5) The schools and classes for the children who need special education.

b) *Those that are optional:*

1) Pre-school educational institutions.
2) Supporting classes and courses.

2. Pre-school education:

The pre-school education includes the education of male and female children who haven't yet reached the age of primary education (48-72 months). This education is optional.

The aims and functions of the pre-school education that are parallel to the general aims and basic principles of the national education are the following:

1) To help the children for their physical, mental and sense developments and good habit formations.

2) To prepare them for the basic education (the primary education).

3) To create a common growing medium for the children who come from inconvenient surroundings and families.

4) To help the children speak Turkish accurately and fluently.

The pre-school educational institutions can be constructed as free schools but they may also be constructed as nursery schools in connection with the elementary schools or as application classes in connection with the other related education institutions.

3. Elementary school:

The primary school is a five year national educational institution (common and private primary schools) established, managed and controlled or permitted to be established by the Government.

The aim of the elementary school is to supply every Turkish child with the necessary knowledge, skill and habits in parallel with the general aims and basic principles of the National Education; and to train them in the direction of their interests, skills and capacities in parallel with the national moral understanding.

According to the Elementary Education law number 222, unless the middle school are spread systematically over the country only the elementary schools section of the elementary education is obligatory until it is made clear by law.

The obligatory education period begins when the child is 72 months and ends at the end of the school year when he enters the age of 15. According to the Elementary Education Law, number 222, the duration of the elementary schools can not be less than 160 working days in villages and 180 working days in towns and cities yearly.

In the elementary schools 25 hours of teaching is given in one week (5 days) with 5 hours of teaching each day. Each class hour is 40 minutes.

Mixed classes

In the settlement places with few and scattered populations (small villages) because of the scarcity of the number of students in a class, and the impossibility of appointing separate teachers to each class, the necessity of combining these classes into a big group under the control of a single teacher has been born. Forming a group by means of mixing different classes and training them by a single teacher is called "mixed class teaching". In mixed classes, the first, second and third year students form group A, and the fourth and fifth year students form group B.

In group A, in Life Studies lessons the subjects to be taught in three years, are taught in detail each year by combining them.

In group B, Social Studies and Science subjects are organized to be taught in the first two years. In the first year, only the subjects that are shown under the heading of the first year subjects in the programme and in the second year subjects that are shown under the heading of the second year subjects are taught.

The teacher and the students are free in spending more or less time for the subjects shown in the programme by taking into consideration the characteristics and needs of the surroundings.

The number of the students in the mixed classes all over Turkey, is nearly the 13-14% of all the students.

4. Secondary schools:

These are institutions that give education-instruction for 3 (three) years after primary school. They can either be opened independently or can take place within the body of secondary education institutions (General Lyceum, Anadolu Lyceum, Professional and Technical Lyceums, etc.).

5. Basic education school:

Basic education schools are composed of primary schools of five years and secondary schools of three years. It is a fact that the interests and the capabilities of the students can not be depicted within a five years'time of educational period. For this reason, with the aim of presenting the business life and professions to the students and by considering that the students can be guided adequately according to their skills, within a compulsory primary education of 8 years, in the school year of 1971-1972 according to a plan, trial applications have started within 14 Basic Education Schools, two of which were boarding-schools.

Table 2: The weckly lessons distribution of primary school

Subjects	CLASSES				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Turkish	10	10	10	6	6
Mathematics	5	5	5	4	4
Practical Life Studies	5	5	5	—	—
Science	—	—	—	4	4
Social Studies	—	—	—	3	3
Religious Instruction and Ethics	—	—	—	2	2
Art	1	1	1	2	2
Music	1	1	1	1	1
Physical Training	3	3	3	3	3
TOTAL	26	26	26	26	26

Table 3: The curriculum of elementary schools

COURSES	Date and number of decree stated by the instruction and training board	Date and number of degree stated by the high comitee of education and training	The date and issue of the bulletin in which it is published
Turkish	22.9.1981/172	—	26.10.1981/2098
Mathematics	5.7.1983/102	—	Published as a book
Science	20.4.1977/150	—	25.4.1977/1931 (Supplementary issue)
Social Studies	1.7.1968/171 21.11.1983/215 (Change in chapters)	—	Published as a book 13.2.1984/2158 (Appendix)
Life Studies	1.7.1968/171	—	Published as a book
Religious Culture and Ethics	18.2.1982/30	—	28.3. /2109
	23.9.1986/187 (Change in general principles)	3.10.1986/28	20.10.1986/2219
	29.1.1987/23 (The application of the 4 th. article of the general principles)	29.1.1987/1	9.2.1987/2227
Art and Shop	1.7.1968/171	—	Published as a book
Music	1.7.1968/171	—	Published as a book
Physical Education	4.12.1987/232	9.12.1987/57	Published as a book

In the school year 1988-1989, 103 boarding-schools and 639 schools have been effective in our country, a tendency towards a compulsory basic education of 8 years can be strikingly observed.

In Turkey, within primary education the 3.6% of the students are in the first step of basic education schools and 11.8% are in the second step of basic education schools.

6. Content of program

In the primary schools in Turkey, Life Studies courses in the first half (Grades 1,2 and 3) and Social studies and Science courses in the second half (Grades 4 and 5) are of central importance. The courses relative to expression and skills (Turkish, Mathematics, Drawing-Handicrafts, Music, Physical Education) are conducted so that they are subordinated and adjusted to the central courses. In the programs of primary education, the most weighted course (the major course) is Turkish.

In accordance with the modern conception of education, the new programs make it possible for students to develop themselves and to carry out research by preparing individual and group projects. Moreover, the relationships between the school and the natural, socioeconomic and cultural setting are taken into consideration in our programs and the teacher is allowed freedom regarding this.

Containing local characteristics, the present primary-school program is based on trips, observation, examination and research. It emphasizes trial by error and facilitates the transfer of what is learned into actual life situations. Started in 1962 as a matter of pilot practice, the program now in use was developed in time and given nationwide application in 1968. However, the developments in science and technology, the modern trends in program developing, and the changes in individual and social needs, gave rise to the necessity to make some alterations in the present program. Consequently, new changes were made in the science course in 1977, in Turkish in 1981, in Mathematics and Social Science in 1983, in Knowledge of Religion and Ethics in 1982-86, and in Physical Education in 1987 (see Table 4).

7. Institutions for program assessment

In Turkey, programs are developed on a central level by the Ministry of Education after consulting the practitioners, educators, administrators of education, superintendents, and the teaching staff of the related universities and faculties. The offices of education and training are responsible for program development and for the preparation of text-books. The pro-

Table 4: Weekly lessons distribution of basic education

Subjects	Classes							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Turkish	12	12	12	6	6	6	6	6
Mathematics	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4
Practical Life Studies	6	6	6	—	—	—	—	—
Science	—	—	—	3	3	4	4	4
Social Studies	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	—
National History	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—
National Geography	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—
Civics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
History of Turkish Republic and Atatürk's Reforms	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Foreign Language	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	3
Religious Instruction and Ethics	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2
Art	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Music	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Physical Training	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2
Craftwork	—	—	—	4	4	6	6	6
Total	30	30	30	30	30	33	33	33

* Basic Education is the new type of school which is the mixture of primary schools and middle schools.

Table 5: Total number of the primary schools in Turkey (1988-1989 Academic Year)

	Numbers Institutions	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Number of Teachers
PRE-SCHOOL	Kindergarden	146	6224	464
	Experimental Kindergarden	319	8316	781
	Nursery Class	2972	89391	5146
	TOTAL	3437	103931	6391
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	Elementary School	49819	6759783	207403
	Basic Education School	639	230065	8521
	Regional Boarding Basic Education School	103	25487	997
	Special Education	40	4998	651
	Private	134	38775	1779
	TOTAL	50735	7059108	219351
SECONDARY SCHOOL	Middle School (Independent status)	3203	901964	34118
	Night	8	908	48
	Basic Education School	639	216707	7895
	Regional Boarding Basic Education School	103	30152	865
	Special Education	2	187	28
	Under the High School administration	1885	1021015	222
	Private	138	54087	57
	TOTAL	5978	2225020	43233
	GRAND TOTAL	60150	9388059	268975

grammes of training designed by these offices must receive approval from the Board of Education and Training and from the Higher Board of Education and Training; then they are published in the Official Gazette, thereby going into effect.

The assessments concerning the implementation of the programmes are made by the Primary Education Superintendents in primary schools and by the Ministerial Superintendents in high schools. Both the groups of superintendents contribute significantly to the work of assessment. During the first year of their implementation, the programmes are considered experimental. Subsequent to an assessment of the level of implementation, necessary adjustments are introduced. One cannot overestimate the contribution made to the work of programme development by the academic staff of the universities.

Although school teachers and school principals are occasionally given free written sources and are admitted to on-the-job Education Seminars by the Ministry (the office under which they serve) so that they can keep abreast of the modern methods of education and training and can renew and develop themselves, one cannot justifiably argue that this state of things is desirable or satisfactory enough. In primary education, Primary Education Superintendents serve as the best helper and guide of teachers and principals. Visiting the teachers at their posts three times within the academic year (in the beginning, the middle and the end of the academic year), all this as planned beforehand and in conformity to the plan, Primary School Superintendents offer a service of help and guidance in such matters as plan, program, implementation and evaluation. When there is need for it, they visit (especially probational and incompetent teachers) as often as circumstances require. After being elected through an examination from among the teachers who have distinguished themselves on their jobs and after completing both undergraduate and graduate programs at the departments of education in the Faculties of Education, primary school superintendents are first employed as probational superintendents; only those who achieve success are appointed as full superintendents. Moreover, careful measures are taken so that primary school superintendents are often admitted to on-the-job Education Seminars and thereby are given full opportunities for self-development.

In every province there is an office of president of the Board of Primary School Superintendents, an office which functions under the Province Directorate of Education. Keeping in view the number of the schools and of the teachers in the province, a sufficient number of primary school superintendents are appointed. These superintendents perform their duty by using the technique of group inspection. The province is divided into as many districts of inspection as necessary. Groups of inspection are formed by appointing each district a sufficient number of superintendents under a chief superintendent. The chief superintendent and those under him are accountable to the office (the Province Directorate of Education). At the beginning of the academic year, each group makes a "Yearly Work Program"; acting in conformity to this, it delivers a "Monthly Work Program" at the beginning of each month and a "Work Report" at the end of the month. Moreover, each group responsible for inspection and guidance in its region prepares a "Years' End Report" at the end of every academic year and presents it to the office under which it operates (i.e. the Directorate of Education). The Province Directors of Education summarize these reports and forward an abstract to the General Directorate of Primary Education under the Ministry of Education. Acting on these reports, the Ministry sets out to take the necessary measures.

YUGOSLAVIA

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1. Introduction

According to the Constitution of Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, of 1974, the entire educational system is regulated on the level of federal units, i.e., republics. However, the majority of legal regulations and practical solutions of educational issues are equal or very similar across republics, so that the report on Socialist Republic of Serbia can well represent the general situation. Important differences will be marked when they appear.

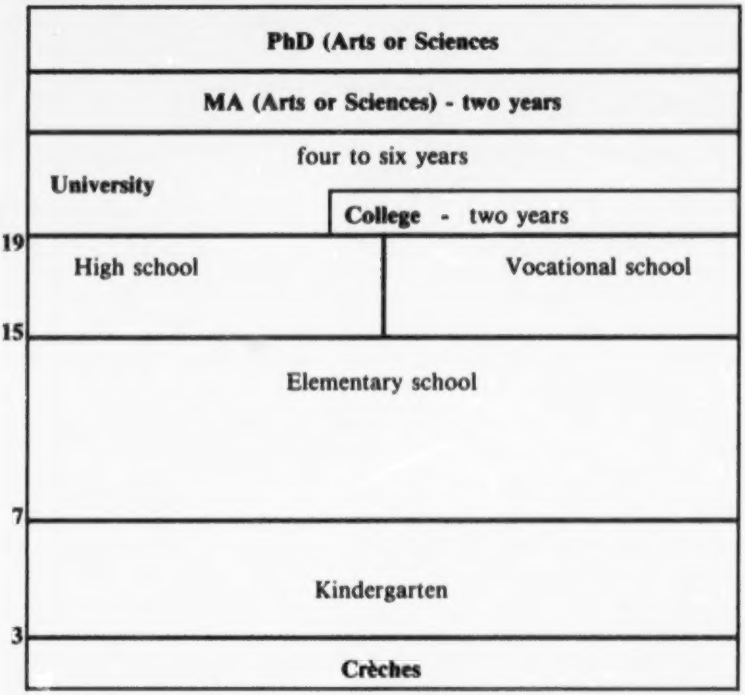
Matters of common/general interest are resolved and necessary cooperation and coordination between republics provided for by joint agreements (e.g., the development of core curricula for elementary education) of federal institutions, boards and associations (e.g. Federal Bureau for International Scientific, Cultural and Technical Cooperation). The entire school system in Yugoslavia is free and public (social). There are no private schools (educational institutions) on any level. Family creches (belonging to early childhood care and education system), usually attached to public preschool centers, can be considered an exception.

All children, youth and adults have equal rights and access to education, regardless of sex, race and nationality differences. All nations and nationalities (ethnic groups) have organized preschool and elementary education on their mother tongue, and for larger nationalities, e.g. Albanians in the province of Kosovo, it goes from preschool to the university level.

Educational system in Yugoslavia consists of: preschool education (early childhood care and education), compulsory elementary education, secondary education and higher and university education (see tab. 1).

Further professional education is offered at colleges of higher education (e.g. teachers colleges) and universities, but also at "People's Universities" and "Workers' Universities".

Table 1: Educational system in Yugoslavia


PhD (Arts or Sciences
MA (Arts or Sciences) - two years
four to six years
University
College - two years
19
High school
Vocational school
15
Elementary school
7
Kindergarten
3
Crèches

Preschool education is organized in creches (1 - 3 years) and kindergardens (3 - 6 or 7 years). Only 30% of the whole population of children from one to seven years attend different preschool programs, but percentages vary over regions and with ages (preparatory groups and classes one year before school often enrol 90 to 100% of children in the developed parts of the country).

Compulsory elementary education in Yugoslavia is based on eight years elementary school (ages 7 to 15 or 6 to 14). First four years can be considered the primary school.

Secondary education in Yugoslavia has undergone a reform during last decade — an attempt to abolish the duality of general-educational v.s. vocational schools — a reform that is now being abandoned. The reform of the reform is reestablishing the old gymnasium (high school), technical and vocational (3 or 4 years) schools.

Higher education — usually two years postsecondary professional schools or colleges, is a separate system from university education.

Undergraduate university studies last 4 to 6 years. The only part of educational system with payed scholarship are postgraduate studies (M.S. / M.A. degree, specialization and Ph d. degree). Part-time studies at colleges and universities are also with student payed scholarship.

2. Primary education

Primary school (first four grades) is an integral part of elementary school. Generally, there is one teacher leading the same class of children for four years, though special teachers may teach arts and music. Foreign languages and the second language in minority groups schools are always taught by other than the main teacher of a particular class.

In most parts of Yugoslavia children enter primary school at the age of 7, in federal republics of Slovenia and Croatia at the age of 6. Children of both sexes attend school together.

Elementary, including primary education is regulated on the republic level. Last Law on Elementary Education in Serbia was issued in 1984, and the proposal for the new law is presently under discussion.

Funding and planning for the development of elementary education is accomplished through Self-Managing Communities of Interest for elementary education (organized on delegate system with representatives of schools on one side, and of different professional and social groups and institutions, including parents, on the other), existing on the municipality, city, regional and republic level.

Goals of elementary education are to provide for the acquisition of basic contemporary knowledge, help the harmonious development of all aspects of pupils' personality and lay foundations for further general education and/or vocational training.

Educational structure of primary school consists of: instruction (regular, remedial and "extra" — for gifted children), compulsory practical courses (home economics and communal self-protection courses), compulsory extracurricular activities (classroom social activities, community oriented work, choir and orchestra), and optional curricular (e.g. foreign language) and extracurricular actitivities (e.g. literary clubs, scouts...) (see table 2 & 3.).

School year starts on the 1st of September and lasts till the 21st of June. There are 205 working days a year: 190 days of compulsory curricular activities, 4 days socially oriented work and 11 days of other activities.

Initial training of primary school teachers has undergone considerable changes over the years and nowadays it is different in different parts of the country. Five years secondary schooling ("teachers school") are generally replaced by higher education, though some already employed elder teachers

Tab. 2: Elementary school plan

Subjects	Grades							
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Serbocroat	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4
Foreign language	—	—	—	—	4	3	2	3
Art	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Music	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1
Introduction to sciences and social studies	2	2	3	—	—	—	—	—
Social studies	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—
Elementary science	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—
History	—	—	—	—	1	2	2	2
Geography	—	—	—	—	1	2	2	2
Physics	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2
Mathematics	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4
Biology	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2
Chemistry	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2
Technical ed.	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2
Physical culture and health ed.	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2
Sports	—	—	—	1	1	1	1	1
Total	18	18	20	23	26	26	27	28

Tab. 3: Compulsory and optional activities

Compulsory practical courses	
Home economics	V grade - 15h. per year VI-VII grade - 35 h. per year
Optional programme	VII grade - 40h. per year VIII grade - 60h. per year
Communal self protection	VII-VIII grade - 35h. per year
Compulsory exracurricular activities	
Classroom social activities	One h per week
Supplementary work	I-IV grade - one h per week V-VIII two h. per week
Community oriented work	I-IV 20h. per year V-VIII 25 h per year
Choire & orchestra	I-IV 114h. per year V-VII 140h. per year
Optional curricular activities	
Second language (YU of foreign)	beguinning III grade two h. per week
Minority groups language	two or three h per week
Optional extracurricular activities	
Supplementary work	IV through VIII max one h. per week
Free choice activities	one to two h. per week

still have that level of training. The maiority of teachers have college training: six years postelementary education & training in "teacher academies" or two years postsecondary professional training in "teacher colleges". However, teachers training is presently moving to the university level — Croatia and Serbia, while in Slovenia university training already exists.

One kind of further training of primary school teachers is to get the higher level diplomas; for those with teacher school diploma: the college diploma, and, now, for those with college diploma (academy for teachers): the university degree. Further training is also accomplished through lectures, courses and practical demonstrations organized by The Republic Institute for the Development of Education each year (during winter recess). Outstanding teachers can be proposed of the "teacher adviser" title, obtainable after a year of supervised work.

Beginning teachers are required to pass the "professional exam" (practical work and oral exams), whithin two years of the first employment.

There is no special training of school headmasters.

3. *New curricula in primary education*

The present elementary school curriculum ("The Common Plan and Programme of Education in Elementary School") in Serbia was approved by the Educational Council of Serbia on the 26th june, 1984 and came into force on the 1st of September the same year.

Intentions of the latest reform of elementary education, leading to the present elementary school curriculum, were:
— to stress the socializing function of the school: to pay particular attention to the development of the whole personality of children, their needs and interests and afford them a more active role in the educational process
— to enhance the education for work and self-management — to develop closer relationship between school and its environment.

Introduction of new elements of the curriculum (e.g. "compulsory practical courses" and "optional and/or compulsory curricular and extracurricular" activities) as well as changes in subjects-matters contents were used to accomplish these. The result is a somewhat enlarged curriculum, an issue that has been criticised by teachers and school psychologists and has lately raised a lot of public discussions and protest of children parents.

4. *Curriculum evaluation agencies*

Two types of agencies generally perform the control, follow-up and evaluation in primary education: the Educational Inspectorates, dealing in principle with law enforcement and control and Institutes for the development of education, on the republic, regional and bigger cities level, acting as both consulting-evaluating and teachers in-service training agencies.

The follow-up and evaluation function in Institutes is performed by teams of educational advisers (experienced teachers/professors for all teaching subjects of elementary school), educational psychologists, pedagogues and research methodology experts.

The implementation of the new plan and programme of elementary school is controlled by school inspectors on regional and central (republic) level, while regional and state Institutes for the development of education, through continuous work of educational advisers, perform jointly the consulting/evaluating function.

On the basis of continuous follow up and evaluation of schools in their authority, city and regional institutes for the development of education make annual reports and submit them to the policy making and funding agencies (assemblies of Self-management communities of interest for elementary education), both on city, regional and central-republic level.

These reports are then used as basis for current policy planning (including the planning of in-service training of teachers) and for the "stimulating grants" awarding.

The "stimulating grants" system is an attempt at "payment by results": the unit of evaluation and grant award is a school and the sum varies from 0 to 5% of the regular annual grant. In practice, this system has not proved worthwhile: it often relies on quantitative indicators (pupils' achievements) that can not represent the complexity of the educational process, its goals and objectives. Also, with the constant underpayment of teachers and education in general, it was difficult to deprive anyone of the additional, though small grant, so that the system lost its selectivity.

Main task of Institutes for the development of education at all levels is to offer assistance and services to schools in different educational matters. These include programs implementation and practical curriculum planning, developing and testing teaching methods and teaching aids, in-service training of teachers and other specialists working in schools and applied research.

Pupils' general abilities and school readiness, teachers' and teaching assessment and evaluation on school level are performed by the psychopedagogical service (psychologist and pedagogues) that exists in most larger cities schools. The school psychopedagogical teams cooperate with institutes, particularly in their development, evaluation and research functions.

5. Research and experimentation

Large scale, five years evaluation research of the new elementary curriculum started in 1985/86 school year.

Institution responsible for this study is the Republic Institute for the Development of Education in Serbia. This is the first time a systematic evaluation research is following an elementary curriculum reform.

The general aim of the study is twofold: to evaluate the effects of curriculum on pupils and to evaluate the curriculum proper. The results of this evaluation study are to provide a basis for correction and further improvement of elementary (primary) school curriculum.

According to the twofold general goal of elementary education, i.e. the acquisition of knowledge and socialization, curriculum evaluation is also planned on two levels: one of scholastic achievements and the other of noncognitive effects.

To assess the level of pupils acquisition of knowledge, achievement tests in practically all subject-matters are applied at the end of each school year.

More precisely, in 1986, first and fifth grade pupils were tested, next year second and sixth, etc.

Tests of the combined criterion/norm-based type have been developed by teams of teaching advisers for the corresponding subject-matters, psychologists, pedagogues and statistics and methodology experts. Tests include the assessment of knowledge acquisition on three levels: facts knowledge, understanding of concepts and principles and ability to apply the learnt and/or to reflect critically on it.

The socialization function of the curriculum (its effects on personality development) is evaluated on the bases of a questionnaire, applied in the last grade of elementary school (15 years). Questionnaire investigates different matters and contains several attitude scales (e.g., attitudes towards the school, towards different social issues such as work, self-management, religion, communist party; their opinion on different matters of school and curriculum, interests etc.).

Other source of data for curriculum evaluation is provided by the assessment of teachers' opinions and their evaluation of curricula (each is evaluating the curriculum i.e., the programme for his/her own subject-matter). Teachers are asked to evaluate the adequacy of programs: the consistency of programme content with its objectives and the general aims of the whole curriculum, the balance of programme and pupils' abilities and interests, the relationship between teaching subject content and available time in the schedule... They are also expected to give explicit opinions on difficult and/or inappropriate parts of programmes and suggestions as to the desirable changes and corrections of these.

Finally, an experts' (coming from scientific community) evaluation of the adequacy of different curricula is added and compared to the results of previous levels of curriculum evaluation. Teams of experts are asked to judge the logical structure and consistency of programmes, their scientific and didactic/psychological bases and appropriateness for the respective ages of pupils.

Besides the assessment-description aspect and comparison of data obtained from the mentioned levels of curriculum evaluation, an attempt is made in the present study to search for the possible correlations of the obtained data with different aspects of the settings in which curriculum is implemented (e.g. urban v.s. rural environment, teaching staff characteristics: level of training, in-service training or further education, teaching methods and teaching aids, dominant types of instruction...).

The study is performed on a representative sample of elementary schools in Serbia (100 schools), including 3000 pupils and 2300 teachers/professors.

So far, most data on effects of the curriculum on children have been gathered and analysed. For example, the correlation between school grades and results on standardized achievement tests for different teaching subjects range from 0.45 to 0.60.

It was also found that pupils show best results on the "facts knowledge" level, but succeed less on tasks requiring understanding of concepts and principles or practical application of the learnt.

An important, though unforeseen, side effect of the whole project is a sort of "training in the process" of both teachers and educational advisers in the methodology of curriculum evaluation.

6. Curriculum contents

Primary school programme (more precisely, the official "Common Plan and Programme of Elementary Education"), consists of:

— detailed programmes for each teaching subject (stating general aims and specific objectives of instruction in the particular subject-matter, as well as the contents to be learnt or worked upon),
— programme guidelines for optional and extracurricular activities, and
— didactic recommendations (on teaching methods, planning and pupils evaluation) for regular, extra and remedial instruction.

Primary school curriculum is highly structured and a subject-oriented type of curricula. The majority of subject-matters instructional goals in the programme are defined in developmental terms (72%). When it comes to the level of specific objectives, however, the picture is opposite — nearly 60% of all objectives pertain to the specific knowledge acquisition.

The majority of educational goals in the programme are in the cognitive domain (44%), and much less refer to other aspects of behaviour and personality development (23% of all goals are affective, 29% refer to social and moral development and behaviour and only 4% to sensorymotor development). Specific objectives present an even stronger case in favour of the cognitive develpment and knowledge acquisition.

Together with the introduction of the new curriculum a series of textbooks and teaching and learning materials were prepared and issued by the approved publishing agency. Only the approved textbooks are used in regular instruction.

The evaluation study mentioned above found out that texbooks for some subject-matters represent the really implemented curricula, although textbooks were not planned as subject of this study.

Concluding remarks

Primary school curriculum evaluation is a field that has recently gained considerable professional and scientific research attention in Yugoslavia. Attaching the research projects to agencies officially responsible for the foolow-up, development and evaluation of elementary (primary) education in Serbia was decided upon as a way to gain data on curriculum implementation and effects and at the same time, introduce scientific methods in the regular process of evaluation performed by these agencies.

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